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WAGES AND EARNINGS

OF THE

WORKING CLASSES,

WITH SOME FACTS ILLUSTRATIVE OF THEIR ECONOMIC CONDITION, DRAWN FROM AUTHENTIC AND OFFICIAL SOURCES,

IN A REPORT TO MICHAEL T. BASS, Esq., M.P.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE WORK AND THE WORKERS.

Productive Power of the United Kingdom—Local Distribution of Occupations—The Wonders of Production—Acquisition of Wealth the Great Motive Power—The Workers and Idlers of Society—Pleasure of Labour—Conditions for efficient and successful Labour—Who are the Working Classes?—Producers and Non-Producers—Technical Application of the Terms Higher, Middle, and Lower Classes.

Productive Power of the United Kingdom.

THE Australian colonies are preparing for the Paris Universal Exhibition a pillar of gold which shall represent the exact quantity of the precious metal which they have extracted from their first discovery of the glittering ore to the present time—a brilliant testimony to the energy and avidity with which gold-searching has been pursued in that young and thriving colony. But why limit this method of illustration to the production of gold? Britain is a great beehive of human labour. Taking space and population into account, I wonder if there be any other country in the world possessing so large a proportion of labourers, where harder work is gone through all the year round, and where the reward of labour is more liberal than in the United Kingdom.[1] Let us try to represent

[1] There are no means of calculating the value of production in this or in any other country. But the amount of exports gives the value of the produce and manufacture of the country in excess of what is required for the wants of the nation; and I find that, in 1864, whilst the

the sum total of what is produced by the inhabitants of these British Isles even in one year. What a breadth and what a height would such a monument attain! Truly, there is something wonderful in the variety and extent of human labour as displayed in these Great Exhibitions. But, how imperfectly do we see, even there, represented the fruit of the toil, genius, and skill of the sons and daughters of industry.

Local Distribution of Occupations.

With the census of 1851 was given a beautiful map of Great Britain, showing the distribution of the occupations of the people in different parts of the country, represented by means of colour-shading and symbols. A pale green tint covered the parts where the agricultural and pastoral occupations are followed, and the parts shaded denoted the chief manufacturing districts. The various manufactures were marked by coloured symbols—such as, woollen, red; silk, yellow; flax and hemp, green; cotton, blue; pottery, orange; coal, black; the metals, grey; with a hat for hatters, a ship for shipping, a fish for fishing, a wooden horse for toys, an envelope for paper, and a key for locks; and it was interesting to see the geographical arrangement of these manifold occupations. Certain places seem to

London.

be the receptacles for everything. The great metropolis is itself a world of labour. Many of the leading occupations are represented here. Some of them are

Lancashire.

exclusively metropolitan. Lancashire is beyond doubt the seat of the cotton manufacture; look at Manchester, Oldham, Blackburn, and other manufacturing towns, apparently glorying in their smoking chimneys, taller

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United Kingdom exported at the rate of £5 6s. per head of the population, France exported at the rate of £4 3s., the United States at the rate of £1 11s., Italy £1 5s., and Russia 8s. In proportion to area, the United Kingdom exported at the rate of £1,322 per square mile, France at the rate of £754, Italy £286, the United States £17, and Russia in Europe £12.

than Egyptian obelisks. There is nothing romantic or picturesque in Manchester. Yet it is interesting to think that the very land now so overladen with factories was, not a century ago, open and free, with forests and morasses, without roads, and almost uninhabited. Birmingham and Sheffield are celebrated all the world over for their hardware and cutlery, a class of articles some hundreds in number, each forming a separate trade of no light importance. Guns and swords, buttons and buckles, pins and needles, gold and steel pens, fancy seals, brooches, clasps, gold and silver plate, vases, and candelabra; these are among the produce of Birmingham, justly styled the toy shop of Europe. Knives and forks, razors and scissors, files and saws, Britannia metal, crinoline, spectacles, surgical instruments, stoves, scythes, and agricultural implements—these are some fruits of Sheffield industry. In the cotton manufacture, machinery has almost superseded human industry. In hardware and cutlery the great worker is the hand. If in Manchester there seems to be an unbounded facility of production, in Birmingham and Sheffield the wonder is, how difficult it becomes to produce anything—how many processes each article has to undergo before it is made ready for the market. And, whilst in the cotton manufacture the main portion of labour is performed by women and children, in the metal manufacture the workers are principally men in the prime of life, daily performing wonders of strength. In the one, the work is carried on in large factories, with 500 or 1000 hands each; in the other, the domestic industry is largely prevalent, and the factories are generally on a smaller scale. Newcastle and Sunderland, with their large grey dotting, are conspicuous for the existence of coal in the interior. But if you look at a geological map, you will see that the mineral wealth of the country

Birmingham and Sheffield.

The Mining Districts.

extends from Cornwall to Wales, thence to Staffordshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire. Further north, it fills Lancashire and Yorkshire; it abounds in Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland, whilst in Scotland, all the central lowland tracts, in the basins and near the Firths of the Forth and the Clyde, are embedded with coal and iron. In England, coal, copper, lead, iron, and tin are all largely represented; in Scotland, coal and iron only. In some counties of Ireland coal is to some extent extracted, but the production is very small. The most important source of British prosperity, the parent and prop of all manufacturing industry, is thus wanting in the sister isle. Liverpool is the home of the mariner and the dock labourer; Glasgow is London in miniature; Aberdeen figures with a ship and a fish; and, if Ireland were included, we should see Belfast rich in her linen manufacture, and Dublin with a cluster of occupations. Generally, agriculture and mining seem to be everywhere; in fact, there is scarcely a spot in the United Kingdom but is cultivated and worked both above and under ground.

Variety of Labourers.

But look at the workers themselves. If we could see, through a panorama, the different scenes of human industry, how impressed should we be with the wonderful adaptation of means to ends which obtains in every department of nature. Let us give but a glance at the successive images depicted before our eyes. What a host do we see intent upon the cultivation of grain, fruits, and grasses, and how hard do they labour in ploughing, sowing, reaping, attending to, and gathering the precious fruits of the earth. True, vegetation covers the earth in every clime, but this spontaneous growth would afford but a limited supply of food, were it not for the labour of the husbandman. Though commerce

The Agricultural Labourer.

and industry have acquired chief prominence among the occupations of the people of the United Kingdom, agriculture has always held a position of the greatest importance. Numerically and economically, it is certainly one of the largest interests in England and Wales, and still more so in Ireland and Scotland. In some counties, as in Rutlandshire, Lincolnshire, the North Riding of Yorkshire, and Westmoreland, about a third of the people are employed in agriculture.

The Miner.

But look again. Very near that luxuriant field is a mine. Descend it. Fear not to enter that dismal cavern. No inscription is at its portal, *Lasciate ogni speranza voi che 'ntrate*, "All hope abandon ye who enter here." And what do you see? Numbers of men, groping in darkness, amidst coal and metal, extracting riches from the very bowels of the earth. See those hewers, squatting down, frog-like in attitude, or absolutely lying upon their backs, driving their picks into the hard seam of coal; see that trapper, quite a little boy, sitting in darkness for hours and hours, opening the trap door for the air current; or those drivers, as they conduct the laden tubs of coals on long low wagons. How glad would you be, were your visit real instead of imaginary, quickly to seize the ladder, or man engine, and ascend once more to the genial sunshine. And did I say, enter ye freely into that fiery pit? Shudder, indeed, when you think of the many who so recently, cheerily, entered into their labour in the morning, and in a few hours were the victims of an explosion of the fiery gases. Oh! what responsibility rests on those who, employing labour of so dangerous a character, fail to take the necessary precautions for the safety of the workmen.

The Forger.

A little further you can enter that forge. Always surrounded by dense heavy smoke which renders the

air very impure, with a most unpleasant suffocating exhalation arising from the heaps of incinerating iron; or near the blast furnace, see the puddler or the forger prematurely worn out by unremitting toil. The most indigenous of British industries, the metal work, is also the hardest. The great iron works, where iron is melted and cast into "pigs," or manufactured into plates, rods, bars, and other larger articles, evidently show the truth of the economic axiom, that labour, nothing but hard labour, is the parent of wealth. Their work admits of no relaxation. No rest is allowed to the labourers, not even for meal-time; they take their food at the works as opportunity offers, and day and night the work goes on uninterruptedly, all the week through, Sunday only excepted, one set of men relieving another at stated hours. And so it is, more or less, with all foundries and factories where iron vessels and implements of various kinds are manufactured. What can be more irksome than the casting of iron, where the men are constantly exposed to the danger of inhaling dust arising from the sand and powdered charcoal used in making moulds for casting purposes? Bread is dearly earned on conditions like these, and yet the labourers are at their post, content with their lot, and enjoying, doubtless, in their own way, life with all its amenities. If any one wishes to see labour in one of its most uninviting forms, let him visit the black districts of Staffordshire or Wales.

The Cotton Spinner.

To see the cotton spinner and factory worker you must enter one of those illuminated factories, with more windows than an Italian palace. Behold there the ranks of operatives, men, women, and children, hard at work, under as strict a discipline as a regiment of soldiers; yet so light and cheerful, all the while singing, may be, a popular song or hymn. See

how every minute of time, every yard of space, every dexterous finger, every inventive mind, is at high-pressure service.

Turn you now to the Spitalfields weaver, busy at his loom from seven in the morning till ten at night, his wife and daughter labouring with him quite as hard and long. A visit to Spitalfields recalls to our memory many a beautiful story connected with the silk manufacture. The two monks coming from India to Constantinople with their silkworms; the Venetians, supplying the Western empire with silks bought at Athens, Thebes, and Corinth; the Sicilians working their silk factories by workmen kidnapped from Athens and Corinth; the French, imitating the Italians, and the English trying again and again to plant mulberry trees, with a view to acclimatise the silkworm in this country. It reminds us of what we read of the arrival, first of Flemish and then of French refugees, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and of what sounds now stranger than all, the patenting of a machine for silk throwing, by Lombe, the plan of which he had by stealth taken in Italy, when working in a factory, under the disguise of a common workman. And one is interested in seeing this great battle-field of free trade. The abolition of the corn laws was contested in Manchester. The battle between free trade and protection to British manufacture, was fought by Mr. Huskisson, at Spitalfields.

The Spitalfields Weaver.

As a specimen of artistic industry, see the printer at his type. Professor Tomlinson, in an admirable lecture on the invention of printing, tells the story of Johannes Gänsfleisch Gutenberg, the inventor of printing with movable type, how he first suggested to form every letter or character of the alphabet separately, so that they may be capable of any re-arrangement, instead of

The Printer.

cutting new blocks of type for every page; how he worked in secret, lest his relatives might think he was practising sorcery; how, having been prevailed upon to confide to others his grand ideas, he was troubled with faithless partners; how, necessitous of money, he fell into the hands of the grasping Faust; and how, finally, he lost all the rewards of his invention by some improvement suggested by a clever assistant of Faust, and the formation of a new partnership between Faust and Schœffer. Unhappy inventors! Many of them the benefactors of the age, how seldom do they realise any benefit for themselves. They sow, but others reap. Yet vain reflection! Newton, when he discovered the law of gravitation; Watt, when he constructed his steam-engine, and Gutenberg, when he completed the first printed Bible, obtained a higher reward than any honour or remuneration could confer. To estimate what the world owes to the invention of printing, compare the present with the past state of society. Greece and Rome had their philosophers and moralists, who shone most brilliantly amidst surrounding darkness of ignorance; but when the seeds of knowledge were scattered plentifully through the press, the few units became a mighty host, and what was the privilege of the minority has become the inheritance of the many.

The Builder. And see how numerous are the builders, constructing houses, churches, roads, and bridges. To meet the wants of an increasing population, constantly advancing in wealth and civilization, most extensive public works of every description have been undertaken in recent years, involving an enormous investment of capital; and all around us we see houses, churches, hospitals, gaols, roads, bridges, railways, river embankments, exhibition buildings, and hotels, springing up

with wonderful speed, and in dimensions beyond precedent. An enormous stimulus has thus been given to every industry connected both with the materials for building, and with building itself. Thankful, indeed, we should be when the builders are busy. It is a good indication of general prosperity. What need there is of more dwellings for the working classes! With the wholesale demolition now going on to make room for railways and other undertakings, unless houses are built with the greatest possible celerity for the evicted population, it is difficult to know what will become of them. And how much room there is for improvement in the house accommodation of the people generally!

The Carrier.

Many are busy conveying men, animals, goods, and minerals. What a host of persons are now employed in railways, and how extensive is the internal traffic of conveyance! But look a little beyond. Eastward or westward of these British Isles, the great ocean separates you from either continent, but in calm or in storm you see the brave seaman toiling in his ship—now on his watch, now steering the helm, and anon unfurling his sail or hoisting his gallant flag. That floating village has a busy community; and how anxious looks the brow of the mariner when the infuriated elements seem to contest his right to further progress! This is truly a seafaring nation. Apart from her naval force, which, with all the advance of other nations, still towers supreme, the tonnage of her mercantile marine has but one rival, the United States of America, and the proportion of her seafaring men to the total population is probably greater than in any other country. A large number seem instinctively to take to the sea as a profession, whatever be the attraction and resources which the land may offer. Be it the love of adventure, be it the impressions produced by the

Seamen.

accounts of British prowess on the sea, be it the thirst for gain, which ignores all obstacles, or be it that love of independence, which seems especially fostered by a life free from all the trammels of conventionalities, navigation has always been a favourite pursuit in these Isles, and will probably continue to be so through all the vicissitudes of British history.

The Fisherman.

And nearer at hand, see that hard-working fisherman. To us the sea appears a scene of waste. The fisherman finds it more prolific than the richest land. Once in a year an acre of good land, carefully tilled, produces a ton of wheat, or two or three cwts. of meat or cheese. But the same area at the bottom of the sea, on the best fishing grounds, yields a greater weight of food to the persevering fisherman every week of the year. Yet, how often do we see him returning clean and disappointed, bitterly repeating the lament, "We have toiled all night, and have caught nothing."

Magnitude and usefulness of Labour.

The panorama must be large indeed to contain a pictorial representation of all the occupations in which our workmen are busily engaged. And what are they doing? Are they building a pyramid to gratify the pride or arrogance of a Pharaoh? No, they are all working what is useful, and what will permanently advance the moral, social, or material interests of society. But there is something wonderful in the magnitude of the works now so readily undertaken and achieved. Some years ago Mr. Stephenson, in his inaugural address as President of the Institution of Civil Engineers, gave a survey of the magnitude of the works connected with the British railways. He told how many tunnels, viaducts, and bridges had been made; and in making an estimate of the earthworks required, when we had little more than half the number of miles of railway we have now, said that, at an average of

The Railway Works.

)0,000 cubic yards to a mile, the total would amount to 50,000,000 cubic yards. And what did this represent? We are accustomed," he said, "to regard St. Paul's s a test for height and space, but by the side of the yramid of earth these works would rear, St. Paul's ould be but as a pigmy by a giant. Imagine a moun- ain, half a mile in diameter at its base, and soaring nto the clouds one mile and a half in height: that vould be the size of the mountain of earth which these arthworks would form; whilst St. James's Park, from he Horse Guards to Buckingham Palace, would scarcely afford space for its base."

The Tunnel under the Alps.

As another specimen of a magnificent and at the same time most useful labour, take the tunnel under the Alps, nearly eight miles long. Think of the difficulty to be met by the impracticability of sinking any shafts on the line to ventilate it. Imagine how slow must be the progress with only two points of attack available at the two ends. By using machinery, the work, which would have taken thirty or forty years to accomplish, will probably be completed in nine years. But when we think of the time to be employed, the capital required, the skill and energy which must be used, we may well consider it an undertaking which does honour to the age in which we live.

But need we take such extraordinary instances to illustrate the wonders of labour? What could excel the common everyday performance of a cotton spinner, when one man with two assistants turns off daily 220 lbs. of yarn, measuring 420 miles in length? Imagine how perfect must be the work, when, in one minute, our manufacturers can spin a length of cotton yarn which would wind four times round the earth!

With achievements like these before us, it seems that there is scarcely any difficulty or hindrance which

can either arrest the courage and resolution of our bold and adventurous merchants or engineers, or set a limit to the performance of arduous and persevering labour.

The Factory System.

The great feature of modern labour, the factory system, has immensely aided production, in that it has contributed to the improvement of the quality of the article produced, and to the reduction of the cost, afforded scope for the extensive use of machinery, facilitated the division of labour, and provided useful occupation for women and children. At one time, the idea of carrying on any industry by means of great assemblages of labourers seemed strange, and created not a little prejudice and opposition; but, economically, production on a large scale, whether in agriculture or manufacture, is always more advantageous; and any objections and difficulties of a social and moral character had to be met, if not overcome, by the interference of the Legislature, in restricting the hours of labour, and making provision for proper regard to the sex and age of the labourers. Experience has since shown the advantage of these regulations, and they are being gradually extended to all those occupations where the necessity for such can be properly established.[1]

The acquisition of Wealth the

I shall not attempt to moralise on the lawfulness of labour, nor is it necessary to dwell on the peremptory

[1] By the Factory Extension Act, 1864, the following works were subjected to the same regulations as were first enacted for mills and factories in 1833: viz. earthenware works, lucifer-match making, percussion caps, cartridge making, paper staining, and fustian cutting. By a Bill now before the House, it is proposed to place under the same regulations blast furnaces, copper mills, iron mills or forges, iron, copper, and other foundries for casting metals; premises in which steam, water, or other mechanical power is used for moving machinery employed in the manufacture of any article of metal, and India rubber or gutta percha; premises where the paper manufacture, glass manufacture, and tobacco manufacture are carried on; and any building or premises in the same occupation in which one hundred or more persons are employed in any manufacturing process.

duty to use our powers and intellect in the work we are called to do. True, the great prompter of all this labour is the desire to accumulate wealth, which exercises such a powerful spell upon every class of society. True, far too many, in this materialistic age, are prepared to sacrifice ease, comfort, rest, and peace of mind, to undergo the greatest hardship, and to spend a life of constant turmoil, in the laborious, and often vain, attempt of acquiring riches. But are we wrong in caring for our material interests—in seeking comfort and enjoyment? I think not. The ancient Eastern idea, that matter in all its shapes must be despised and avoided—that the Deity may best be served by a life of solitude and beggary, by mortification and abstinence; the extravagant contempt for the elegances and even the decencies of life, professed by the later Stoics and Cynics; and the notions of the early Christians regarding monasticism, celibacy, and seclusion—find but little countenance in the precepts of the Bible. The soul acts through the body. As yet, mind is enclosed within matter. If we neglect the wants of the one, we endanger the welfare of the other. The living spirit within us cannot answer its high calling unless it be assisted by the mortal frame within which it is embodied. We cannot be beneficent, charitable, or useful, unless we first provide for ourselves things honest in the sight of all men. It is by labour alone that we can procure abundant and wholesome food, sufficient clothing, and a comfortable home. It is by labour alone that we can secure to ourselves ease and rest, that we can place ourselves beyond the risk of poverty and want, and that we can accumulate for the rainy day—the day of disease and of shattered forces, the day of disaster and the day of old age.

great motive power,

Need of Labour.

Would, indeed, that human labour were exercised to

The Workers and Idlers. The Bees and Drones of Society.

the extent of which it is capable. The whole world is now before us. With the wonderful facilities of locomotion by land and by sea, with the liberal and enlightened policy which has found favour in all countries, and with the peace and good accord which happily reign almost all over the globe, the labourer is no longer limited in his field of occupation by space or nationality. Wherever there is work to be done, thither he may go to exercise his strength and skill. But are all our productive forces at work? How many drones are there in modern society? How many talkers and not doers? How many who waste their time, talent, and opportunities, which, once gone, pass for ever from within their reach? How many indulge in *dolce far niente?* We have some idea of the amount of wealth annually produced. It would be well if we could give a numerical expression to the amount of wealth which is thus wasted; but I dare not enter into a labyrinth of figures. One thing we must remember, that, if we stop our labour, those silent forces of nature brought to our use by machinery, and which supply power equivalent to that of 20,000,000 persons, stop also. And further that, if we stop from working, it is not only the wages that are lost, but three or four times the amount of wages, in the diminution of wealth produced. What is the effect of a strike? Thousands of workmen suddenly cease to be productive labourers; the raw materials lie idle; the machinery is at rest; the steam-engine is silent; the factory is deserted; the railways and canals are without traffic; the workmen lose their wages; the master loses the interest on his capital and his profits; the nation loses the trade, with all its advantages. And, though not so forcibly exhibited as in a strike, the same loss is caused by every kind of stoppage, whether

Effect of cessation from Labour, or Strike.

any of us are idle altogether, or we shorten the hours of labour, or reduce the quantity of labour within the given time, or by any trade regulation diminish the stimulus necessary to superior productiveness. I am not against shortening the hours of labour for useful purposes. The factory regulations in this respect have increased, not diminished, production. I know that labour lightened is not lost; that relaxation and rest only quicken our energies for more labour. Yet, with all this, little do our easy-going people, our idlers and talkers, know to what extent they contribute to the waste of those powers which God gives to us—to use, and not to abuse—to exercise, and not to allow them to rust within us. "What is a man," says Shakespeare, "if his chief good and market of his time be but to sleep and feed?—a beast, no more. Surely He that made us with such large discourse, looking before and after, gave us not that capability and God-like reason to fust in us unused?"

Short time increases production.

Labour is not a curse. In his primeval purity and loveliness, man was made to labour, because it was necessary to his happiness. With our powers of thought and imagination—with our capacity of invention, construction, and intercourse—we must be active in order to be happy; and if thorns and thistles spring where we anticipate nought but luxuriant fruitfulness and beauty, necessity proves an incentive the most salutary to strengthen, develop, and refine the powers and faculties with which we are endowed. But what is labour? It is the exercise of all our faculties, physical and intellectual. It has been said that the heat of the sun is occasioned by friction, or percussion of meteorites falling upon it; and whatever latent powers our physical and mental construction may possess, it is only by the friction of labour that we can adapt sub-

Pleasure of Labour.

stances to our use, or soar by reason and contemplation towards the infinite. Seldom, if ever, after all, is labour purely mechanical. It is the mind that commands, and the hands that obey. Who can distinguish the respective domain of soul and body? Though to the philosopher in his study, the lawyer at the bar, and the writer at his desk, the mind may be the great motive power, vain were his efforts but for the obedient hand; and what can be effected by the spade or the hammer without the directing power of intelligence, art, and design? Nor can we undervalue the affections in the proper performance of labour. Vain indeed is the attempt to do anything well, unless the will and the heart give zest and effectiveness to the task. Let, then, the whole man be engaged in accomplishing a distinct object; let the work he has in hand be in unison with his power and disposition; and let him attain by his well-directed effort a certain measure of success, and labour to him will not be a task but a pleasure.

Conditions necessary for efficient and successful Labour.

Certain conditions, however, are quite necessary to the efficient discharge of duties in the work of production. Need I say that there are wanted energy, aptitude, and skill, in order to subdue matter, and make it subservient to our wants and comforts? With indolence and carelessness no work is done, no wealth is produced.

Perseverance.

There must be a steady and persevering labour, an energetic and willing mind, to overcome the difficulties which nature presents; an impulsive and transitory effort is not sufficient. For the workman himself, nothing could be more necessary than energy and steadiness. Alas for that worker who takes all the Mondays for pastime and idleness, who keeps fairs and wakes, or who deliberately neglects the work which a bountiful Providence sets before him! "Miserable is he who slumbers on in idleness! Miserable is the work-

man who sleeps before the hour of his rest, or who sits down in the shade while his brethren work in the sun!" There is enough of forced idleness and slack time in every occupation, without aggravating the evil by wilful neglect.

Health. Much depends also on the corporeal, intellectual, and moral qualities of the labourers. That we may work well, we must be healthy and comfortable. A pinched and starving population cannot be expected to be efficient producers of wealth. The body must be in full vigour, the vital energies must be elastic and fresh, the mental faculties must be quick and active, ere we can give ourselves to patient and persevering labour.

Skill. In the present condition of labour, much depends, moreover, on the skill and judgment which the labourer possesses. Compare the value of skilled and unskilled labour. The demand for skilled labour is incessant; but beasts of burden and machinery almost monopolise all the work of unskilled labour. Never was the saying, "Knowledge is power," more truly applicable than at present. Education is no longer a luxury—it is a necessity.

Character. To complete the catalogue of requisites, in order to secure a good reward the labourer must not only have a good physical frame and aptitude for labour, but those qualities which create confidence and animate trust. Unless a labourer is worthy of confidence, it is impossible that he can be regularly employed. And what is it that creates confidence? A sober and steady conduct, truthfulness, and purity of character, conscientiousness and strict regard to duty; in short, an abiding sense of the responsibility of our calling.

Natural advantages. Over and above any qualification, the labourer is, of course, always dependent on natural agents to assist his labour. The land differs in productiveness according

to place and locality. The climate has a great influence, not only in promoting vegetation, but in making the worker hearty and robust. Numerous external influences, in fact, determine more or less the extent of the labourer's success, not forgetting that, first and foremost, Divine Providence must bless our labour ere we obtain any result from it. "It is vain for us to rise up early, to sit up late, to eat the bread of sorrow; for, except the Lord builds the house, they labour in vain that build it."

Divine Providence.

Such is the work, and such are the workers! In the technical sense of political economy, which defines labour as the voluntary exertion of bodily or mental faculties for the purpose of production, or, as the action of the human faculties directed to the production of a useful object, there are many whom it would be erroneous to call producers. By that standard all labour is unproductive which ends in immediate enjoyment, without any increase of permanent stock, or which has not for its result a material product. It would be erroneous, nevertheless, to imagine that no labour is valuable which is not employed in the production of wealth. The genius which enlightens, the religion which comforts, the justice which preserves, the sciences and arts which improve and charm our existence, are as truly productive as commerce, which affords us the enjoyment of the produce and labour of all countries—as agriculture, which extracts the fruits special to each soil—and as manufacture, which transforms the raw produce of different countries into articles adapted to the taste and wants both of the opulent and the masses. Few, indeed, who truly fulfill the mission to which they are called, who labour in the sphere and condition in which they are placed, and who exercise the faculties and talents with which they are endowed, can be said to be unpro-

Producers and Non-producers.

ductive in this great laboratory. Let us perform our part well, and we need not fear that our labour will be useful.

Technical application of the title, "Working Classes."

But though it is quite true that the labourer or worker may be found among all classes of society, there is a special sense in which we speak of the working man as of one who is employed in manual labour, or who is in the receipt of weekly wages. Nothing, indeed, is more difficult than to fix the exact meaning of certain terms, and to arrive at a correct classification of objects. But there is no difficulty in apprehending the general designation of working men — working classes. They are the heart and soul of the body politic, the substratum or subsoil of the masses of the people. The census divided the population into six classes: viz. the professional, domestic, commercial, agricultural, industrial, and indefinite. Which of these represent our working men? The professional has the Army, Navy and Police, the domestic class has the domestic servants; the commercial has the carriers by land and sea; the agricultural has the agricultural labourers; nearly the whole of the industrial consist of working classes; and a large portion of the indefinite are labourers. Altogether, I have calculated that the number of persons actually at work in the United Kingdom amounts, in round numbers, to 11,000,000, of whom about 6,000,000 are adults, and the remainder women and persons under age; this, however, includes a certain number receiving wages as adults at sixteen to twenty. Of twenty-one years and upwards, we may take the number at about 5,000,000. What proportion of the domestic class, including wives, mothers, and children, not classified as workers, should be added to arrive at the total number of the working classes, it is difficult to say. Ordinarily we take each adult male to represent

a family of 4·50 persons, since in England the proportion of persons to a family, in 1861, was 4·47; in Scotland, 4·5; and in Ireland, 5·14; and at this rate the working classes would number 22,000,000, being little more than two to one of the entire population of the United Kingdom.

Gradations in the Working Classes.

In taking this large number as the great body of the working classes, it is important to remember, that within that appellation there are comprised persons of many grades, and belonging to various branches of labour. Lord Derby entertained the House of Lords last session with his analogies of political parties as Conservative-Liberals and Liberal-Conservatives, Whigs, Liberals, and Radicals—a classification which corresponded, he said, with similar divisions in the social scale. The number of sections, he contended, showed how gradual is the descent from the higher classes to the higher-middle, and from the higher-middle to the lower-middle. By the same imperceptible variation we might proceed from the middle classes to the artisans, thence to miners or agricultural labourers, and downward to common labourers; yet the difference is remarkable between a mechanic and a coal miner, between a Lancashire spinner and a dock labourer. Some are startled with the thought that, in the aggregate, the working classes far outnumber the middle and higher ranks of society. But how many are there of the industrial community who are only a shade below the middle class? Where is the difference between an ill-paid schoolmaster and a foreman in a factory?—between a small tradesman and a mason or carpenter?

Higher, Middle, and Lower Classes.

Sometimes society is divided into higher, middle, and lower classes; but nothing could be more fallacious than such a division. Who are the higher? Do they comprise only the Upper Ten Thousand?—or the

aristocracy generally?—or the gentry? Who are the middle? Do they include the Rothschilds, the Barings, and the Peabodies, as well as the great mass of traders, clerks, and professional men? And what shall we say of the appellative "lower classes?" Lower in what? In many cases they are certainly not lower in means, in intelligence, in sagacity, or even in the character of their occupations. Such purely conventional terms tend greatly to confuse and perplex our notions on the subject. If the working classes in the United Kingdom are numerous and influential, let us remember that they possess some merits and qualities unequalled among similar classes in any other country. How many men of science, how many artists, have sprung from them or belonged themselves to them? Hargreaves, the inventor of the carding machine, was an artisan; and so was Crompton, the inventor of the spinning mule; whilst Arkwright was a barber. Telford, from a stonemason, became the great constructor of bridges; Trevithick, a mechanic, invented the first high-pressure steam engine; Watt was an instrument maker; and Hugh Miller a stonemason. From the shoemakers have sprung Carey and Morrison, the great missionaries. The day labourers have given Brindley, the engineer; Cook, the navigator; and Burns, the poet. Newcomen was a blacksmith, and Stephenson an engine fireman. See what a host of men have risen from the ranks in every art! Barry was an Irish tailor boy, Etty a printer, Turner a barber, Chantrey a carver and gilder.* It is not wealth that forms real greatness, nor is wealth needed to acquire it. Let our occupation be high or low in public estimation, he is a great man who, by high character and self-mastery, by culture

* See Smiles' excellent work entitled, "Self-made Men."

and industry, by application and perseverance, secures for himself a true individuality, and with his powers fully developed and his faculties duly expanded, uses whatever talent he may possess to the glory of the great God, from whom we receive every good and perfect gift.

WAGES.

Relation of Capital and Labour—The Contract of Wages—Intrinsic Value of Labour—Present Rates of Wages—Wages at Home and Abroad.

Relation of Capital and Labour.

No SUBJECT has called forth more continuous, more keen, and more interesting controversy than the relation of capital and labour. Often they have come into open conflict; most erroneous notions have been entertained respecting their respective rights and province; and very recently they have given rise to no little anxiety. What is the position of the labourer? Wealth, it is true, is the result of labour. But the labourer has no means of making machines, tools, and implements, or of buying the raw material; and he is beholden for these to the capitalist. Here we have at once the basis of interdependence between capital and labour. We might imagine that under such circumstances the capitalist and the labourer might agree to form a partnership between them; but seldom can such a relation be satisfactorily arranged. The labourer cannot wait till the article is completed and sold to divide the produce with the capitalist; he wants the produce, or his share of it, in advance. Neither can he work on the chance that the article produced may be sold, or that the adventure may prove profitable; he must provide for his own food and that of his family whilst he is producing. Better for him something prompt and certain than a larger sum at a

distant time, contingent on the success of the enterprise. Nor would such a contract be in all cases satisfactory to the capitalist, since he might be exposed to the pressure of the labourer to sell the produce in order to realise his share, and he might, by dividing his interest with many, cease to exercise an efficient control over the whole; to say nothing of the danger of want of unity in the direction, of disagreement between him and the labourer, and of the difficulty which might be experienced in securing the necessary secrecy. Besides this, legal hindrances would arise from the relation of partnership—such as the difficulty of getting rid of a labourer once he becomes a partner, and the right of investigation of accounts which would be thereby conceded. The Act to amend the law of partnership, passed in 1865, provided that no contract for the remuneration of a servant engaged in any trade, by a share of the profits of such trade, shall of itself render such servant responsible as a partner therein, nor give him the rights of a partner.* But though this may enable the master to place the workman in a position to derive direct advantage from the skill and energy which he may apply in the business, that would not extend to the establishment of a contract of partnership. Partnerships between masters and men have often been proposed, and may in some instances have been satisfactorily carried out. Even recently† such a partnership has been established in an iron mill, where the masters, after reserving 10 per cent. for themselves, as interest, on the value of the works, and all property owned by them, proposed to divide the profits so that, if they should be 10 per cent. or under, the labourers are to have their wages only; but if they should exceed 10 per cent., then one-half of the excess shall be given as a

Partnership of Capital and Labour.

* 28 & 29 Vict. c. 86. † See the *Times* of the 19th of January, 1867.

bonus to the men; but with the limitation that, before any dividend is declared, 2½ per cent. should be set aside for a sinking fund, which shall be the property of the firm. It is very doubtful, however, whether such an agreement can prove satisfactory. Generally it will be found that a contract of wages is decidedly preferable to any partnership of capital and labour.

The Contract of Wages.

And what are wages? Wages are the rent of industries; the purchase price of industrial services; the remuneration received by the labourer in recompense for the exertion of his faculties of mind and body. The labourer who receives wages is understood to transfer to his employer, for a consideration, his portion of the profits which may be derived from his industry, the employer taking the risk of gaining or losing by the transaction. In this new relation, the parties are at liberty to deal as they please—the one to demand, and the other to give whatever their respective interests suggest. But there are certain conditions under which alone they can be mutually helpful. The labourer should remember that it is the amount of capital, or that portion of wealth which is destined for reproduction, which regulates and provides for the wages of labour; that, however fertile the soil, however favourable the position of the country, however great the extent of territory, unless there be capital in hand to maintain the labourers who have to cultivate it, and to procure the necessary implements for the purpose, nothing can be done; that the more capital there is to divide among a certain number of labourers, the higher will be the wages; that the larger the number of labourers competing for the same, the less will be the sum gained by each; that every increase of such capital must necessarily promote a corresponding increase of wages, unless there be as great an increase of competition

among labourers. The labourers are, in fact, deeply interested in the increase of capital. They absolutely depend upon it for their welfare; and the only and best means they can use to increase their own resources is to favour the increase of capital, so that the fund which is destined for their maintenance may keep pace with the increase in the number of labourers, whilst whatever they do which diminishes or retards such increase must necessarily recoil on themselves. The capitalist must remember that the labourer must live, that he must maintain his family, that he must educate his children, and have a share of relaxation and enjoyment, without which life is a burden. He must not forget that the best way to make a labourer work well is to pay him well; to keep him happy and cheerful, strong and healthy; and that if he will deal justly by his labourers, they will neither neglect their labour nor be disaffected—they will neither complain nor be disposed to strike. If, on the one hand, the employer has a right to endeavour to lower the wages, lest by enhancing the cost of production too high he becomes unable to compete with the foreign producer, and thus lose the trade altogether, on the other the labourer has a right to expect that the wages shall bear a certain proportion to the profits of the undertaking, be they high or low. And while the competition among labourers is favourable to the master in keeping the wages at the minimum limits of the labourer's wants, the freedom of labour, an extensive field of industry in the Colonies and in the United States of America,* and the right to combine among themselves, to control, as far as possible, such competition, enable the labourers to resist the attempt to lower wages below what is just and necessary.

* The emigration from the United Kingdom in ten years (1856 to 1865) averaged 160,000 per annum.

Intrinsic value of Labour.

It is very difficult to say what is the intrinsic value of labour. We may measure it by the cost of maintenance of the labourer, and by the skill and time requisite for the labour. As the value of any article is regulated by the cost of producing it, so the value of labour is ultimately governed by the cost of subsistence of the labourer and his family. However large the competition among labourers, the wages can never go far below, or will not continue long at less than, the actual cost of bare living. This is the natural or necessary rate of wages, which must differ with the cost of articles of food and clothing at different times and in different countries. There is a material difference, for example, in the cost of maintenance of a British labourer who eats daily wheaten bread and butcher's meat, and of a Chinaman who lives almost exclusively on rice. But this minimum rate of wages can only prevail where there are as many labourers as can possibly be required, and where all such labourers are equally efficient. This is, however, far from being the case in all instances, and especially in skilled labour. There the rate of wages must rise above this minimum in proportion to the circumstances incident to each kind of labour, to the peculiar skill and aptitude required, and to the relative repugnance, the fatigue, discomfort, wear and tear, and damage, attending them.

Present Rates of Wages.

The present rates of wages in this country may be said generally to be fair and remunerative, though a considerable difference obtains in different trades and occupations in different districts, and even in different times of the year. The general average rates resulting from the extensive inquiry hereafter instituted appears to be, for adult males, 22/6 in England and Wales, 20/6 in Scotland, and 14/4 in Ireland; for boys and youths under twenty, 6/6 in England, 7/8 in Scotland, and

6/3 in Ireland; for adult women, 12/6 in England, 10/6 in Scotland, and 9/9 in Ireland; and for girls, 8/6 in England, 8/2 in Scotland, and 7/4 in Ireland. The total average in the United Kingdom being 19*s.* for adult males, 7/3 for boys under twenty, 11*s.* for adult women, and 7/10 for girls.

Between mechanics and labourers the difference in wages is great. The mechanic or artisan, such as joiners or carpenters, designers, spinners, engineers, puddlers, moulders, forgers, shipwrights, modellers, and throwers in potteries, and other skilled workers, earn easily 30*s.*, 40*s.*, and even 50*s.* per week. Common weavers, agricultural labourers, dock labourers, and all those classed as common labourers, earn from 12*s.* to 25*s.* per week, the hours of labour being usually from ten to twelve hours a day, though in some cases longer hours are required, and overtime is paid.

Wages at Home and Abroad.

In comparison with some foreign countries, the wages in England appear high. From reports given recently* regarding the condition of the collieries and iron forges in Belgium, it seems that in coal-mining hewers earn 2/10 to 4/2, wood-tree setters, 3/1 to 5*s.*, wood-cutters' sawyers, 2/6 to 2/11, and leaders of coal, 2/6 to 2/11; sundries, 1/6 to 2/6 per day. In this country, in Newcastle and its neighbourhood, hewers earn 5/9, sawyers 3/6, and labourers 2/4 to 3*s.* In iron furnaces a puddler in Belgium earns 4/2 to 5*s.*; in Staffordshire, 7/6 to 7/10; the under hand in Belgium, 2/3 to 3/1; in this country, 2/6 to 2/11. In iron foundries a moulder in Belgium earns 2*s.* to 2/11; in Sheffield, 5*s.*; and so in other branches of labour. In France the wages are also lower than in this country. In 1860 the Chamber of Commerce of

* See the *Times* of the 24th and 27th of December, 1866.

Paris instituted an inquiry into the state of industry in that metropolis, and the general results were that, out of 290,759 men whose earnings were ascertained, as many as 212,000 earned from 3 to 5 francs a day, or an average of 4 francs a day; women earning from one-half to 2 francs a day. These wages, however, applied to Paris only, and did not include agricultural labour or other lower-paid occupations, especially in the provinces. Whilst in this country the engine-drivers earn 7*s.* 6*d.* a day; in Prussia first-class drivers earn 5*s.*, and second 3*s.* 9*d.*[1] In the United States of America, the Statistical Bureau of Washington recently published the wages paid in four places in the North, viz. Hartford, in Connecticut; Tunkhannock, a town in the iron regions of Pennsylvania; Tiffin, an agricultural town in Ohio; and Cairo, at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi river, the extreme southern point of Illinois. Taking into account that the wages are paid in paper money, the averages were, carpenters, Hartford, 2 dols. 75 cents; Tunkhannock, 3 dols.; Tiffin, 3 dols.; and Cairo, 3 dols. 50 cents, or 14*s.* or 15*s.* a day; farm labourers, with board, in Hartford, 26 dols. 50 cents; in Tunkhannock and Tiffin, 27 dols. 50 cents per month, or 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* a day; but in Cairo 18 dols.; machinists, 3 dols. to 3 dols. 50 cents per day; ironfounders, 2 dols. 50 cents to 3 dols.; weavers, 1 dol. 50 cents in Hartford, and 2 dols. 50 cents in Cairo,[2] or 6*s.* to 10*s.* a day. At Sydney, in Australia, carpenters earn 9*s.*; bricklayers, 10*s.*; plasterers, 9*s.*; painters, 8*s.*; bricklayers' labourers, 8*s.*; plumbers, 10*s.*; quarrymen, 8*s.* to 10*s.* per day. But, however valuable these facts may be, it is idle to institute any comparison without calculating, on the one hand,

[1] See *Times* of the 29th of March, 1867.
[2] *Ibid.* 12th of February, 1867.

the cost of living, and on the other the rate of production. The colliers in Belgium may be as well remunerated at the low wages as those in Newcastle at the higher, if we take into account the cost of food and house rent; and the high rate paid in Sydney may be low when we calculate the high rent and cost of food.

Rate of Wages and Price of Labour.

The position of employers and employed is often perplexing. The employer looks not only to the rate, but to the amount of wages which he must give for a given work. The workman is only interested in the wages. It is quite the same for a farmer who wants a field trenched whether the amount that he can afford to give for the work is divided by three able and industrious men, or five or seven weak and lazy. But it makes all the difference with the labourer if he is to get a third or a fifth of that given amount. The amount of wages and price of labour, or the earnings of the labourers, are, in fact, two different things. The same amount of wages may produce twice as much labour, where the labourer is in earnest in his work. Besides, a much greater amount of labour will be performed in a summer than in a winter's day—in fine, than in bad weather; in countries where the people are less given to enjoyments than in countries where pleasure seems to be the first and most attractive pursuit. Allowing, therefore, that in some foreign countries the rate of wages may be lower, the amount of wages paid for a given quantity of work may still be greater than in England.[1]

Productive powers of British and Foreign Labourers, &c.

Some very valuable facts on this question are furnished by Mr. Alexander Redgrave, Factory Inspector, in his recent report. Taking the total of cotton factories, the average number of persons employed to

[1] Report of Inspectors of Factories for the year ending the 31st of October, 1866, 1867.

spindles was as follows:—In France, 1 person to 14 spindles; in Russia, 1 to 38; in Prussia, 1 to 37; in Bavaria, 1 to 46; in Austria, 1 to 49; in Belgium, 1 to 50; in Saxony, 1 to 50; in Switzerland, 1 to 55; in the smaller states of Germany, 1 to 55; and in Great Britain, 1 to 74 spindles. To make an exact calculation, it is not sufficient to take the wages of labour, but, as Mr. Redgrave said, we must take in conjunction with it the power of the operator as a producer; and here we find that the English operative has an advantage over his foreign competitor, sufficient with some other qualifications to counterbalance the mere cheapness of wages. If we give more to a British workman it is because he works more and works better. When, in fact, we consider the whole amount of wages paid for the total work performed, we find a much greater equality in the rate of wages throughout the world than we are apt at first to think. And it is the rate for labour, and not the rate for the day or for the month, that constitutes the regulating rate of wages.

APPROPRIATION OF WAGES.

Number in a Family—Number of Earners—Cost of Food and Drink—House Rent—Clothing—Medical and Benevolent Objects—Implements and Tools — Savings' Banks — Building Societies — Incomes of the Working compared with those of the Middle and Higher Classes.

In order to ascertain the real value of wages, it is necessary to examine what amount of comfort they are capable of supplying to the workman. And here I must enter into some interesting details. The economic condition of a family depends primarily on the number of members composing it, and their respective ages. Among skilled labourers, the usual habit is to marry as soon as they terminate their apprenticeship; but among the unskilled, many enter into the bonds of matrimony at a still earlier period, so that very early in life many of them have large families dependent upon them. Of all labourers the farm labourers receive the lowest rate of money wages, yet even among them the number in a family far exceeds the average for the kingdom. In the report of Dr. Edward Smith[1] on the food of the poorer labouring classes, it was shown that in 500 families visited in the United Kingdom the total number of members was 2757, giving an average of 5·51 in a family; the proportion in England being 5·75; in Wales, 4·79; in Scotland, 4·59; and in Ireland, 5·17. In the manufacturing districts the same averages would generally

[1] Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1864.

obtain. We may take, then, as a fact that the number in a family amongst the working classes rather exceeds the number in a family throughout the kingdom, indicating clearly that there are causes in operation among the working classes tending to the increase of families which far outweigh the check which low incomes must necessarily produce.

Number of Earners in a Family. Labour of Women and Children.

In a family, however, there are usually more than one earner. In agricultural pursuits, where the money wages are low, generally the wife will keep a cow or attend to the pigs and poultry, and the children are all at work; or in other cases the wife and daughters are working in the manufacture of hosiery, lace, or straw-plaiting. In the manufacturing districts there is extensive labour for women and children. In towns, the daughters of artisans are often employed as domestic servants. In most cases, therefore, in the families of our working classes, the grown-up portion of the family may be considered to be all workers and at work, unless disabled by disease, or kept idle from want of employment. In a moral, and to a great extent economic, aspect, the system of placing every member of a family in industrial pursuits must be considered highly prejudicial. Careful attendance to household duties should be the first thought in every well-arranged family. Due attention to the wants and comforts of the husband, the bringing-up of children in health and good morals, the maintenance of order and neatness in household arrangements, are duties which the wife and mother alone can satisfactorily fulfil. Let these be neglected, and the surest and safest foundations of comfort and happiness are ruthlessly torn away. Whatever benefit may be obtained from the earnings of the wife or mother, it is more than counterbalanced by the want of supervision and care, the want of economy and order,

above all, the disregard to the intellectual and moral advance of the family which her absence is certain to produce. If indeed the money expenditure thereby caused to the household were carefully calculated, it might be proved that on the whole the amount lost is greater than the amount earned.

Expenditure of the Working Classes.

The expenditure of our working men may be divided into four distinct heads: viz. 1st, food; 2nd, house rent, with fire and lighting; 3rd, clothing; and 4th, education, health, and recreation. The proportion which each of these bears to the whole must, of course, vary considerably, but generally we may calculate that more than half, or rather two-thirds, of the income is devoted to food, and the remainder is expended in the other three items. The

Expenditure in Food.

cost of food materially depends on the dietary used; and there is much difference in this respect between the habits of farm labourers and artisans, and between workmen in the receipt of high or low wages. Dr. Edward Smith, in his report on the food of farm labourers, gave the cost of food to be, on an average, for the United Kingdom, 2/10¾ per adult weekly; in England, 2/11⅞; in Wales, 3/5½; in Scotland, 3/3¾; and in Ireland, 1/9¾; Ireland exceeding the other divisions in cheapness of living, whilst in England the value of the food consumed was less than in Wales or Scotland. With this additional circumstance in favour of Ireland, that for the money expended the labourer obtained nearly twice as much carbon and more than two and a half times as much nitrogen as was procured in England. Then followed Scotland in point of economy, and England was lowest. The Irish farm labourers are greater eaters of breadstuff than the English or Scotch, but meat is most consumed by the English. Meat or bacon was consumed by 99 per cent. of all the families included in the inquiry in England, by 84 in Wales, 72 in Scotland,

and in Ireland by 59 per cent. only. The use of tea is very extensive everywhere, yet more general in Scotland and England than in Ireland.[1] The food of the lowest-fed classes of labourers, such as silk weavers, needle-women, kid glovers, shoemakers, and stocking weavers, was less in quantity and inferior in nutritive qualities than that of farm labourers, the average quantity supplied being too little for health and strength; yet the average cost of food per adult, even of these classes, varied from 2/2½ to 2/9½. Amongst the better classes of labourers and artisans, however, a much higher scale of diet usually prevails, and meat forms a very important item in the daily expenditure. Builders, engineers, shipwrights, and all persons employed in occupations requiring great physical exertion, generally take a large quantity of food, and in many cases even wastefully, of the most *recherche* and even expensive kind. Taken generally, we may assume that bread and meat absorb the largest portion of the labourer's income devoted to food. The price of bread now is certainly lower than it used to be. The average gazette price of British wheat in 1845 was 50/10; 1855, 74/8; and in 1865, 41/10; of barley in 1845, 31/8; 1855, 34/9; 1865, 29/9; and of oats 1845, 22/6; 1855, 27/5; 1865, 21/10. Meat, however, is much higher. In 1852 the average price of meat was 3/9¾ per stone, or within a fraction of 5¾*d.* per lb. In 1855 it was 4/6¼ per stone, or 6¾*d.* per lb. In 1860 it was 5/1¼ per stone, or 7¾*d.* per lb. And in 1866, 5/9¾ per stone, or 8¾*d.* per lb.; the difference between 1852 and 1866 being more than

[1] Tea and sugar have become prime necessaries of life to the poorer classes. Many of those whose wages range from 8*s.* to 12*s.* almost live upon bread and tea. Many purchase daily half an ounce of tea and two to three ounces of sugar, and some purchase it at pennyworths at a time twice or thrice a day. The average consumption of tea per each individual of the population, in 1840, was 1 lb. 14 oz.; in 1865, 3 lbs. 4 oz. Of sugar, in 1840, 15 lbs.; in 1865, 36 lbs.

50 per cent.[1] Sugar and tea, on the other hand, in consequence of the great reduction of duty, are considerably cheaper.

Expenditure in Drink.

But greatest of all items in the expenditure for food, in the case of a large number of families of the working classes, is the money devoted to drinking spirituous and malt liquors. It is a sad, very sad, fact that in the United Kingdom as much as £89,000,000 a year is expended in ardent spirits, £58,000,000 of which is by the working classes. There are cases, and we fear not a few, where a working man earning 25*s.* to 30*s.* a week in wages will expend upward of 5*s.* a week in drink, mostly for his own gratification, quite regardless of the limited resources, amounting almost to penury, of wife and children. Long hours of labour, complete exhaustion of forces, irregular employment, sorrows and disappointments, often lead to drinking—excessive drinking, and once the workman becomes a victim to its seductions, health and vigour are soon at an end. Shrewdness and elasticity give place to sottishness of mind and heaviness of step, and, what is still worse, character and capacity are speedily lost for ever. To say nothing of the evils of drunkenness, that fruitful source of crime, riot, and sorrows without number, can any one with his eyes open prefer the momentary sensual gratification of drinking to excess, to the enduring happiness resulting from a comfortable home? Proper statistics of drunkenness are not obtainable. As far as the police statistics assist us in giving the number of persons taken up by the police as drunk and disorderly, the percentage would seem to be only five to ten in a thousand. A much greater number, however, it is to be

[1] See the table of prices paid at Greenwich Hospital for food, clothing, and household stores and rates of artificers' wages, from 1740 to 1865, in the Appendix. And also see *Times* of the 10th of November, 1866.

feared, waste their substance and destroy their health in this, the most insidious of all social luxuries.[1]

Next to food and drink is house rent, to which must be added the expenditure for fire and light, as well as household furniture and other necessaries. As will be seen from the facts hereinafter stated, a great proportion of the working classes live in houses rented under £7 a year, the accommodation thereby obtained being very small and poor. To a great extent the labourers are compelled to economise in their house accommodation, from the difficulty of meeting the cost of the necessary food and other expenditure with the low wages obtained. Yet, as it has been well said, a taste for more refined homes has yet to be acquired by the great majority of our working men. They do not think that a few shillings more in house rent is, after all, the best expenditure they can make of their money. The saving of one shilling or two per week is an important consideration. But it is no saving, when the evil effects are duly considered. The slow deterioration of health, the lowered vitality and enjoyment, the destruction of the ordinary sense of decency—these, and a long series

House Rent.

[1] In a paper on the self-imposed taxation of the working classes in the United Kingdom, Mr. G. R. Porter calculated the cost of spirits of home production, and of foreign spirits, at three times the amount of duty; and the cost of beer at the rate of 1*s.* 2*d.* per gallon. Upon these bases it appears that in the year ending the 31st of March, 1866, the amount of duty on home, foreign, and colonial spirits having been £13,741,907, the cost to the consumer was £41,225,721. The quantity of malt retained for consumption was 51,746,000 bushels, or 6,468,000 quarters. At 3½ barrels per quarter, and 36 gallons per barrel, the quantity consumed would be 813,888,000 gallons, which, at 1*s.* 2*d.* per gallon, would give the cost of £47,476,000, making a total of £88,702,521, independently of the license duty. If we calculate the proportion consumed by the working classes at two-thirds of the whole, the amount so spent by them will be £58,544,000. To this we must add the cost of tobacco. In 1865 the quantity consumed was 39,000,000 lbs., which, with the addition of other ingredients, may be calculated to become 47,000,000 lbs. Assuming the low price of 4*s.* per lb., we have a total of £9,400,000.

of evils arising from overcrowding, come in so gradual and insidious a form compared with the palpable and immediate pecuniary advantage of living at a very small rental, that they fail to be duly noted and traced to their origin.[1] In the houses of a large number of the working classes the want of accommodation, light, and air is remarkable, but still more so is the absence of order and tidiness.

Clothing. Clothing enters largely in the expenditure of the working classes, and this item is now high, from the higher cost of some articles of the first necessity, and also from the love of dress which obtains among all classes of society. With the agricultural labourer the wear and tear of shoes is great. In towns, artisans and labourers alike spend much in this item. Servant women devote a great part of their income to dress; and, in the manufacturing districts, factory women and girls are, on Sunday, scarcely distinguishable from the higher classes of society. Apart, however, from any extravagance, the cost of clothing in a large family is considerable in the course of the year.

Medical attendance, and benevolent objects. Other expenses in a household are medical attendance, and expenses for recreation and amusements, besides payments for religious purposes, or for acts of benevolence and charity, and contributions for friendly societies, and other benefit clubs. Altogether, these varied sources of expenditure form a considerable sum during the year, and it is quite evident that, with the increase of civilization and intelligence, and with the increase of comforts and elevation which are sought by every branch of society, the cost of living, be it absolute or conventional, has greatly augmented, in recent years especially. Indeed, taking all into account, it is probable that the

[1] See "Homes of the Working Classes, with Suggestions for their Improvement," by James Hole.

increase of wages which has taken place has scarcely been equivalent to the corresponding increase in the expenditure of the working classes.

Taxes. Our workmen have no reason to complain of the extent of taxation pressing upon them. There was a time when corn was taxed 25*s.* a quarter, tea 100 per cent., sugar as much as 2*d.* to 3*d.* a pound, and when bacon, butter, cheese, soap, and candles were all taxed, raising the prices of food, probably by at least a third of the amount, in tax and monopoly. Now the taxes are greatly diminished, and they are so levied, that a working man, of sober and abstemious habits, may be said to bear but a very small share indeed of the national burdens. From extensive inquiries instituted, it appears that the working classes consume about 40 per cent. of tea and sugar. We may calculate their consumption of corn, tobacco, and other articles of import taxed in the same proportion, and of spirits and beer at two-thirds. Wine is but little used by them. A third of the license duties, and a sixth of the local and poor rates, are probably paid by them. At these proportions, the amount of taxation borne by the working classes in 1865 may be estimated as follows:—Tea, £1,000,000; sugar, £2,000,000; corn and other imported articles, £700,000; spirits and beer, £14,000,000; tobacco, £2,000,000; licenses, £700,000; stamps, £500,000; and poor and local rates, £3,000,000; making in all £24,000,000; which, divided by 22,000,000, gives a taxation per head of little more than 20*s.*; while the middle and higher classes, in addition to their proportion of these taxes, are charged with taxes on wine, £1,400,000; stamps, £9,000,000; and property and income tax and assessed taxes £10,000,000, or in all about £50,000,000, which divided by 8,000,000 persons, will amount to about £6 per head.

Savings.

If there be one fault more than another with which the working classes are usually charged, it is a want of providence—a disposition to expend every penny of their income, and generally to live, so to say, from hand to mouth. It is much to be lamented that, in a large multitude of instances, however abundant may be the earnings at any given time, a return of stagnation finds the workman as destitute as ever. It would be erroneous, however, to imagine that the labouring classes are all so reckless in the expenditure of their surplus income. The original cost and subsequent annual expenditure in tools and implements constitute so much accumulated capital. There are, for instance, 300,000 carpenters, joiners, and shipwrights, each of whom requires tools costing from £10 to £50. At an average of £20 each, they will amount to £6,000,000. The savings banks receive from them large annual amounts. Of late years, the accumulation of capital thus invested by the working classes has greatly augmented. In 1830 the number of depositors in savings banks was 17 in 1000 of the population, and the amount of deposits averaged 11/3 per head. In 1848 the number of deposits was 39 in 1000, and the amount of deposit 30/8 per head. In 1865 the number of depositors was 48 in 1000, exclusive of the depositors to the Post Office Savings Bank, and the amount of deposit 30*s.* per head, inclusive of the deposits in the Post-office banks—the total amount held by the saving banks to the credit of depositors having been on the 20th of November, 1866, £38,000,000, and at the Post-office Savings Banks £8,000,000 more.

Capital in Implements and Tools.

Savings Banks.

Building Societies.

The amount invested in building societies is very considerable. The freehold land and building societies, originally formed for a purely political purpose, have provided means of investment for the surplus of the

working classes of no inconsiderable amount. The large societies, such as the National, Westminster, and Conservative freehold societies, have large numbers of shareholders, and from a paper read before the British Association at Birmingham, in 1865, it appears that in that town alone there were nineteen societies, with subscriptions received amounting to £2,200,000, principally belonging to the lower, middle, and working classes.[1] The co-operative associations afford a new and important outlet. By a return[2] laid before Parliament, there were formed in Great Britain 651 industrial and provident societies, having on the 31st of December, 1865, capital in shares of £1,017,000.

Income of the Working as compared with Middle and Higher Classes.

Collectively the working classes exercise considerable influence on the nation. I have estimated upon very good basis, though necessarily in a general manner, that the 12,000,000 persons at work annually earn about £418,000,000. Comparing this income with the income of the middle and higher classes, I find that the income assessed to income tax,[3] in the year ending the 5th of April, 1865, paid principally by the latter, amounts to £349,000,000, whilst a considerable addition should be made for the property of such class under £100, or not assessed to that tax. Apparently the difference between the income of the two classes is not so material; but when we take the number of persons belonging to each into account, the result is very different. If we take the working classes to number, as I have said, 22,000,000, and the

[1] See a paper on "Freehold Land Society," by Thomas Beggs, Journal of the Statistical Society, vol. xvi. p. 338, and a paper on the "Benefit Building and Freehold Land Societies in Birmingham," by G. J. Johnson, vol. xxviii. p. 507.

[2] 355 of 1866.

[3] This amount was divided as follows:—Schedule A, £150,682,260; B, £35,812,402; C, £32,044,489; D, £110,105,766; E, £20,451,166. Total, £349,096,083. In the proportion of England, £296,026,220; Scotland, £29,340,024; Ireland, £23,729,839.

middle and higher 8,000,000, it will follow that the £418,000,000 will give a proportional income per head of about £19 per annum, or £85 per family, whilst the £349,000,000 will give a proportion of £43 per head, or £193 per family; these proportions, however, varying in the various grades of society from £20 to £300 per family in the working classes, and from £50 to £50,000 and upwards in the middle and higher.

The accumulations of the working classes cannot be compared with those of the middle and higher classes; yet a decided improvement is perceptible in their general condition, and we trust it will be their endeavour to economise and husband their resources, so that, be they large or small, they shall place themselves in a state of comparative independence.

TRADE SOCIETIES.

Trade Societies and Guilds—Objects of Trades Unions—Uniformity of Wages—Piecework and Overtime—Apprenticeship—Introduction of Machinery — Combination Laws — What is Intimidation? — Strikes—Conseils de Prud'hommes—Arbitration Boards.

Trades Unions and Guilds.

TRADE SOCIETIES are, in many respects, a revival of the old guilds, formed at a time when charters of incorporation were granted to retailers and artisans for engrossing and monopolising all kinds of business. But they differ from them in this respect, that whilst those guilds and companies could enforce their monopolies by the powers granted to them by their charters, trade societies or unions rest only on the authority granted to them by their own members, and whilst those exercised their rights and privileges as against the whole community, these can bring their action to bear only upon the members of their own societies. There is, moreover, another essential difference. The old guilds and companies were composed of retailers and artisans, but trade societies or unions are formed exclusively of the latter, with a certain number of labourers. Nor must we forget that, whilst the objects of the old guilds and companies were economic and charitable, trade societies aim also at elevating the workman to a position of respectability and influence in the great body politic.

The most important object trade societies have in view is to act upon wages. Their motto is "a fair

Principal object to raise the rate of Wages.

day's wages for a fair day's work." Starting from the principle, that alone and without union the workman has no chance of improving his income, such societies are formed, either professedly or by implication, for the purpose of maintaining certain rates of wages, obtaining an increase of the same whenever opportunities occur, resisting any attempt at reduction, preventing one employer paying less than another for the same amount and quality of work, and for regulating the supply of labour as much as possible in order to check any inordinate competition. Though well acquainted with the fact that wages are much more regulated by the laws of supply and demand than by any concert among the men, or any representations of trade societies, they think that the operation of economic laws may be assisted or counteracted by the action of conflicting forces; and they imagine that by their efforts they may enable their members to participate at a much earlier time the benefit of any improvement in the condition of their industry. On this they are strengthened by the report of the Committee of the Social Science Association, which stated, "That leaving out of account the accidental benefits, and the accidental mischiefs of trade societies, it must be admitted that they have at times assisted the workmen in a trade more speedily to realise higher wages when the profits and wages in it have been rising, and they have, in some instances, been of advantage to the master by producing greater uniformity of wages throughout a trade." In forming an opinion upon questions of so delicate a character, it is necessary clearly to distinguish the permanent from the temporary influence of any law or force. Though it is quite possible that the action of trade societies may temporarily have a direct and beneficial

influence in favour of the workman, it is quite evident that permanently all their efforts must prove fruitless as against the operation of the more certain and inevitable economic laws which regulate wages.

Uniformity of Wages.

One great object of such societies is to promote, as far as possible, uniformity of wages, aiming not so much at perfect uniformity, as to fix a minimum rate for all those working in the same trade or occupation. Surely they cannot be blind to the difference of skill and industry among the workers. They must know that a man of indifferent ability cannot earn as much as a man of good ability, and that in any case steadiness and skill will always secure to the workman regular employment to the preference of the indolent and unskilful. Uniformity of wages is a great desideratum; and, as in the case of uniformity of price, there are economic laws in operation which must inevitably tend towards it. But it is one thing to assist the operation of natural laws, and another to enforce general principles, either before the law is sufficiently in operation, or, in special cases, where the same could never apply.

Piecework and Overtime.

The effort to attain such uniformity being thwarted when wages are paid by piecework, many trade societies have opposed such a method of payment, contending that it offers better opportunities to masters to reduce wages, and induces men to work longer and harder than is advantageous for them, whilst where a middleman is required to settle the wages the workman's labour is charged with an additional payment. Although an unfair use may be made of this method of paying wages, can it be maintained that, as a rule, payment by piecework is unreasonable? The labourer is at liberty to work as much as he pleases; it is a matter of open contract in each case; and the master enters into an obligation to pay a given amount in relation to the

work performed. In many instances, it might be shown, such a method of payment is fairer for the labourer than payment by the day. As regards overtime, trade societies do not object to it on occasional emergencies, but oppose it when it grows into a system, because excess of labour injures the health of the labourer, stupefies his moral energies, deprives him of time for rational enjoyment, and takes from him any opportunity for culture. They oppose it, too, also on the ground that whilst some labourers are thereby overwrought a much greater number are suffering from want of employment altogether. Reasons like these are unanswerable; and so long as the societies exercise their influence in this respect with reason and discrimination, they well deserve support and sympathy.

Apprenticeship.

Some societies also object to an excessive number of apprentices. In some cases they have rules restricting the number, and compelling the members to refuse to work if more are received. The defenders of the system say, first, that by thus requiring journeymen to undergo a proper training they best secure the continuance of that skill and dexterity which are requisite to obtain excellence in production; secondly, that they have a right to say to whom, and to what extent, they will teach to others the art in which they have been trained; and thirdly, that having once acquired this knowledge, at much expense, they have a right to take care lest those whom they have instructed should outbid them in the labour market. It is moreover asserted that since the sole object of the system of apprenticeship is the recruital of the ranks of the journeymen, thinned by the course of time, and it is based on the principle of gratuitous instruction on the one side, and gratuitous or slightly-paid labour on the other, it is a clear perversion of the system where apprentices are multiplied simply for the purpose of

cheapening labour. The masters, of course, consider all rules restricting the number of apprentices as interfering with their rights, and as opposed to the personal liberty of the men. And political economy has always proclaimed the grand principle of "freedom of labour." Allowing that a certain time is necessary to learn any trade, and that a workman has the right to refuse instruction to any one, does the journeyman stand in the capacity of a teacher to the apprentice? The old practice of placing a boy under a journeyman has been generally given up. The apprentice is indentured to his master, and he covenants to teach him his trade in the way he thinks best. Under such circumstances the responsibility of teaching rests with the master, not with the journeyman. If the workman has a right to protect himself from competition, he should always remember that the master has also the right to choose labourers wherever he may find them.

Introduction of Machinery.

Happily, the opposition to machinery is now quite disapproved of by the best societies, and our workmen are as convinced as any other class that it is by our decided supremacy in mechanical contrivances that we have hitherto maintained the foremost place in manufacturing industry, whilst they have had abundant evidence of the fact that by the introduction of machinery the demand for labour is increased and not diminished. And if, in individual cases, ignorance still prevails on the subject, we need not wonder. Free trade is now generally admitted to have operated most beneficially to the true interests of the country, yet not a few among the middle and higher classes are yet incredulous of its advantages and ignorant of its working. Must we not excuse at least those who have themselves been injured by the introduction of machinery if they fail to regard them with friendship or good-will? When new machinery

is introduced, those thrown out of work are not immediately absorbed in the increasing demand for the new species of labour caused by it. Even if the demand increases in consequence, it takes some time before the mills can be erected, or an increased number of machines can be put up in order to meet that demand. And, moreover, a new class of workers becomes necessary; the same men are seldom employed, and they are obliged to seek employment in other trades, for which they may or may not have special fitness. That, in view of such eventualities, and conscious of personal unfitness to enter into other occupations, probably at an advanced age, some workmen should oppose the introduction of machinery, is no more than the natural instinct of self-preservation would always suggest. A good deal of consideration, therefore, ought to be exercised on the part of the masters in introducing machinery in any industry. It might be expected that, having regard to the immediate consequences which may result on the workers, due and proper notice should be given them of the contemplated change in the method of production. It might be hoped that, in the introduction of the change, the displacement of labour would be effected in a gradual manner, with special consideration for those unable at once to put their hands to another industry; and how can the masters hope to secure the ready assent of their men where the introduction of machinery is used as a threat in order to subdue the demand for higher wages, or to induce them to accept lower wages?

Other objects of Trade Societies.

The restrictions put by trade societies upon their members working with persons not united with them, and the demand that the master shall not employ such, are too futile and unreasonable to require confutation. Surely this is burdensome to the labourers, and utterly

irreconcilable with economic laws. Freedom to earn our food wherever we can, and to give our labour for the best remuneration we can obtain, is the first law of social existence, and is a right which should be allowed to every labourer.

Combination Laws.

The law as regards combinations and strikes has been quite revolutionised of late. At one time working men were not allowed the freedom to ask whatever wages they liked. In the middle of the fourteenth century, with a spurious coinage in circulation, and with great scarcity of labourers produced by the recent pestilence, the workmen asked higher wages; but the Statute of Labour was passed, enacting that no one should be allowed to ask or receive greater wages than he had been receiving for ten years before the pestilence; and, because the workmen refused to work at such wages, another Act was passed forbidding any person to leave the town in summer wherein he had dwelt in winter, or to remove from one shire to another. A century later, in 1548, an Act was passed restraining workmen and labourers from entering into any compact not to make or do their work but at a certain fixed price, or to do only a certain amount of work in a day, or to work only a certain number of hours. A passing ray of light appears in some partial Acts under Philip and Mary, and Elizabeth, but it was not long before another attempt was made to fix the rates of wages by royal proclamation, and workmen were once more subjected to imprisonment for taking higher wages than those appointed. Thus the law continued, with but slight emendation, till about 1813, when all the Acts empowering justices to rate wages or set prices of work for artificers, labourers, or artisans, were repealed; but the right to combine, and many other restrictions, remained in force till Mr. Hume, in 1824, moved for a

Use of violence, threat, or intimidation prohibited.

Committee to inquire into the state of the law on the subject. An Act[1] was then passed repealing all the Acts in force in any part of the United Kingdom relative to combinations of workmen, and enacting, first, that, if any person shall by violence to the person or property, or by threats, or by intimidation, or by molesting or in any way obstructing another, force or endeavour to force any workman to depart from his hiring or work, or to return to his work before the same shall be finished; or, secondly, prevent or endeavour to prevent any workman, or other person, not being hired, from hiring himself, or from accepting work or employment; or, thirdly, if any person shall use violence to the person or property of another, or threats or intimidation, or shall molest or obstruct another for the purpose of forcing or inducing him to belong to any club or association, or to contribute to any common fund, or to pay any fine on account of his non-complying with the rules or regulations made to obtain an advance, or to reduce the rate of wages, or to lessen or alter the hours of working; or, fourthly, if any person shall by violence, or threats, or intimidation, force any manufacturer to make any alteration in his mode of regulating his business, or to limit the number of his workmen—every person so offending shall be imprisoned and kept to hard labour for three calendar months.

Combinations among masters and men lawful.

The same law, however, makes it lawful for any number of persons to meet together for the sole purpose of consulting upon or determining the rate of wages, which the persons present at such meeting, or any of them, shall require or demand for his work, or the hours or time for which he or they shall work in any manufacture, trade, or business; and also to enter into any agreement, verbal

[1] 6 Geo. IV. c. 129.

or written, among themselves for the purpose of fixing the rate of wages or prices which he or they shall require or demand, or the hours or time for which he or they will work. And the same powers are granted to masters. By a subsequent law[1] it was provided that no one, whether in actual employment or not, shall, by reason merely of his entering into any agreement with any workman or other person or persons for the purpose of fixing, or endeavouring to fix, the rate of wages or remuneration at which they or any of them shall work, or by reason of his endeavouring peaceably and in a reasonable manner, and without threats or intimidation, direct or indirect, to persuade others to cease or abstain from work in order to obtain the rate of wages or the altered hours of labour so fixed or agreed upon, be deemed or taken to be guilty of molestation or obstruction within the meaning of the former Act, and shall not therefore be subject to proceedings or indictment for conspiracy. This provision does not authorize any workman to break or depart from any contract, or authorize any attempt to induce any workman to break or depart from any contract. By the law as it stands, therefore, it is quite allowable for any class of men, be they masters or workmen, to combine together, for any purpose whatever, provided they do not coerce any one to join the combination.

What is coercion or threat.

In practice it is very difficult to determine what is coercion or threat.[2] When there is an actual assault or threat of violence, the matter is clear; but a formidable combination may spread terror without inflicting or threatening violence, by a tacit understanding that it

[1] 22 Vict. c. 34.

[2] As to what is threat and intimidation, see Wood *v.* Bowron, 36 L. J. (Mag. C.) 5; O'Neill *v.* Galbraith, 32 L. J. (Mag. C.) 259; and Walsby *v.* Anley, 30 L. J. (Mag. C.) 121.

will be inflicted if needful. The threatening and interference may assume many a form. It may be clothed in enigmatic language; it may be direct and insulting; it may be used by applying terms of opprobrium to the reluctant party, or by injuring his tools. Whatever form it may assume, there can be no hesitation in pronouncing all such use of physical or moral coercion as absolutely wrong. If we prize independence of action for ourselves, we must allow it to others also.

Friendly Society rules of Trade Societies.

Many of the objects of trade societies are highly praiseworthy. Their provisions for the poor and disabled among them, and the control they exercise over insubordination and excess, have a most wholesome influence on their members, and it is much to be regretted that, together with these useful provisions, there are some which the courts have declared illegal, as operating in restraint of trade.[1]

Strikes.

It is sad indeed when disputes between masters and men end in strikes. Nothing could be more suicidal to them both than to allow matters to go to such extremes. Any concession is better, and arbitration is better still. When we consider the evils caused by the cessation of production, the heartburnings, the uncertainty of transactions, and the endless quarrels—it is impossible to regard a strike in any other light than that of unmixed national calamity. Calculations have been made of profits and losses from such strikes.[2] But one thing is certain. The nation loses always. The Manchester strike of 1829, the Glasgow strike of

[1] Hornby *v.* Close, 36 L. J. (Mag. C.) 43.

[2] See Dr. Watt's paper on Strikes, read at the British Association in 1861; Professor Fawcett's "Economic Position of the British Labourer;" and papers in the "Fortnightly Review for 1865" on "The Good and Evil of Trade Unionism;" and a paper on "Strikes and Combinations with reference to Wages," by Professor Waley, Journal of the Statistical Society, vol. xxx. p. 1.

1837, the Preston strike of 1836-7, the strike of Engineers in 1851-2, and the more recent strikes, one and all, have produced great losses and much physical and moral sufferings; whilst in the contest between capital and labour the chance of success is, to say the least, very doubtful on the part of the labourer.

Conseil de Prud'-hommes.

Much has been written with a view to introduce a remedy for this great evil. Some have proposed the institution in this country of a court like the Conseil de Prud'hommes of France, consisting of a president and a vice-president, nominated by the Government, and a certain number of manufacturers and workmen, each selected from his own class, with a jurisdiction over all disputes between manufacturers and workmen, masters and apprentices.

Arbitration under the Combination Law Act.

The Combination Act, 6 George IV. cap. 129, provided that disputes relating to past contracts arising between masters and workmen may be settled and adjusted by arbitration. According to this Act, such disputes might be settled either summarily by a justice of the peace, or, if that be not agreed to, by referees appointed by such justices, or, if the referees do not agree, then definitively by the justices of the peace. But the statute did not work well, from the unwillingness of the parties to go before a magistrate, lest it should have the appearance of a criminal proceeding, from the uncertainty as to the parties who may be selected as referees, and from the objections workmen have to refer their matters to magistrates, whom they consider partial to, if not themselves connected with, manufacturers. Other efforts have been made to provide some satisfactory machinery for the settlement of such disputes. A few years ago Mr. Slaney brought in a Bill for the formation of Councils of Conciliation and Arbitration, to consist of not less than two masters and two workmen, and not more than ten masters and ten workmen,

and a chairman. Lord St. Leonards made also a similar ineffectual attempt, and now a Bill is before Parliament to establish Councils of Conciliation to adjust differences between masters and workmen.

Voluntary Arbitration Board in Nottingham.

It is doubtful, indeed, whether we can render compulsory that which, in the nature of things, must be voluntary. If arbitration is to succeed it must spring from a better understanding between master and men, and a greater readiness, on either side, to do what is right and proper. In this direction, it is gratifying to find that a board of arbitration has been at work for some time in the hosiery trade in Nottingham; the board being composed of equal numbers of employers and employed, the president being a manufacturer and the vice-president a workman; the workmen choosing the president and the employers choosing the vice-president. After six years' experience of the practical working of the system of arbitration as opposed to strikes and lock-outs, the board recently reported that they were thoroughly convinced that in a free country, where workmen and capitalists have a perfect right to enter into combinations, the simplest, most humane, and rational method of settling all disputes between employers and employed is arbitration and conciliation. The board was strengthened in this conviction by the fact that although during the last two years the demand for hosiery had been, in several branches, of an exceptional character, and labour, in some departments, unusually scarce, and, notwithstanding the workmen have preserved their trade unions, yet by having a central authority to appeal to, composed equally of employers and employed, all questions calculated to produce irritation and lead to disputes were promptly settled; all inequalities in the rates of wages were adjusted—the manufacturer was enabled to accept

his contracts without apprehension, and execute them without delay, and the rights of workmen have been jealously looked after and strictly preserved; whereas in neighbouring counties, and throughout the country, a chronic warfare has existed betwixt labour and capital, to the great injury of both, owing to the want of some court commanding alike the confidence of employers and employed.

The economic and legal bearings of trade unions and strikes are of the highest importance, and they have been the fertile subjects of discussion of late. Any plan therefore which may be suggested, having for its object to prevent the resort to such a fatal issue, deserves the greatest consideration. Much interest will, doubtless, attach to the inquiry now instituted by the Royal Commission. Let us hope that the valuable information it may collect, and the mature judgment which they may form, may tend to remove any prejudice which may have been introduced on a question evidently so difficult and delicate, and have the effect of restoring the necessary harmony and co-operation between the employers and employed, without which the work of production is seriously hindered and endangered.

Letter from M. T. Bass, Esq.

101, Eaton Square,
25th April, 1866.

Dear Sir,

The recent great advance in the rates of wages and the increasing influence of the working classes have suggested the question, what may be the total amount of their annual income. Mr. Gladstone, in his speech at Liverpool a few weeks since, placed it at about £250,000,000, while I had formed an opinion, based on personal investigation, that the amount must be much greater.

Having been asked in the House of Commons upon what bases he gave his estimate, the Chancellor of the Exchequer replied that "he was not aware that there existed any positive information on the subject, but that the materials for arriving at it existed in the census enumeration of the occupation of the people in connection with the wages paid to the different classes of workmen."

I am persuaded that accurate information on the subject would be found of great interest and utility,

and having had communication upon it with Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Milner Gibson, I venture to solicit your co-operation in instituting a wide and methodical inquiry into the earnings of the working classes in the United Kingdom, in order that we may arrive at the closest practicable estimate of the aggregate amount, and be in a position to show the basis on which it is founded, with any other conditions congenial to the subject which our inquiry may develop.

I remain, very truly yours,

M. T. BASS.

LEONE LEVI, Esq., F.S.S.

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ESTIMATES

OF THE

EARNINGS OF THE WORKING CLASSES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

DEAR SIR,

IN accordance with your instructions I have instituted a careful and searching inquiry into the earnings of the working classes of the United Kingdom, and I have now the honour to give you an estimate of such earnings, which I have obtained after extensive personal inquiry, and the use of the best and most trustworthy information within my reach.

I shall first state the sources of such information, and the principles I have adopted in pursuing the inquiry. For the number of labourers employed in the different occupations I have taken the census of 1861, adding for the increase of population since that year six per cent. for England and Wales,[1] the increase in the last decennium, 1851-61, having

Sources of information concerning number of workers.

[1] The estimated population in England and Wales in the middle of 1861 was 20,119,496, and in 1866, 21,210,020. Increase in four years 5·42 per cent.

been at the rate of 12 per cent., and 3 per cent. for Scotland,[1] the increase in the same decennium having been at the rate of 6 per cent. No increase was necessary for Ireland, since the continued emigration and other causes keep the population stationary if not retrograding. It is to be regretted that the census made no distinction between masters and men in giving the number employed in the leading manufactures. In the census of 1851 a table was given showing the number of masters in trade and of men in their employ; but owing to the difficulty of obtaining an accurate return without making a complete industrial census the enumeration was not made in 1861. Still the table of 1851, which recorded 129,000 masters, furnishes some guide for estimating the present number of employers in relation to the number of men.

Concerning wages.

The wages have been obtained from the following sources. In most cases I have ascertained the present rate of wages by personal inquiries from the employers and the employed. The wages of the agricultural classes have been given in a return to the House of Commons for 1860. The Miscellaneous Statistics published by the Board of Trade give the current wages in different centres of industry mostly supplied by the Chambers of Commerce. Much information I have derived from papers on wages read to the Statistical Society by Mr. Chadwick and Dr. Watts of Manchester, Mr. Purdy of the Poor Law Board, and Dr. Strang of Glasgow; and to the Society of Arts by Mr. Ashworth and others; and I have made use of the information given in the news-

[1] The estimated population in Scotland in the middle of 1861 was 3,066,633, and in 1865, 3,153,413. Increase in four years 2·82 per cent.

papers respecting strikes and meetings of journeymen in different occupations.

Modes of calculating annual earnings.

In estimating the earnings of the working classes from the number of persons employed and the current wages, attention must be paid to broken time, short work, holidays, idle days, wakes, wet weather or frost stopping agricultural work and house building; time when seamen are ashore, time wasted from accidents or from changes of machinery, and other causes which diminish the sum total annually earned. The time thus lost differs in every industry, according to the state of trade and the habits and character of the working classes. Without attempting to calculate for this item in each case, I have deemed it best to adopt the principle of excluding from the computation all persons of 60 years and upwards. We may assume that at that age the proportion of infirm persons is necessarily great, and any number beyond that thus excluded will provide for those between 20 and 60 years of age, not actually at work, or earning less than 52 weeks' wages.[1] The deductions made by masters for different purposes, such as loan of machine or power, school, and doctors, &c., expenses for tools, and payments made by working men to their piecers, helpers or apprentices, must also be calculated to obtain the net earning. In the earnings of those under 20 a distinction should be made between children and youths; but I have taken an average for the entire period of minority, making allowance where necessary for apprenticeship fees, &c.

[1] In 1861, in a total population in England and Wales of 20,119,314, there were 1,460,606, or 7·22 per cent. of 60 years of age and upwards. The time wasted, or during which no wages are earned, may safely be estimated on an average at 4 weeks in 52, or in the proportion of 7·69 per cent.

Designation of workers included in this inquiry

Much may be said as to the classes of persons included within the term "Working Classes." The electoral statistics only included in it persons supporting themselves by daily manual labour. Some have limited the meaning to such as are in receipt of weekly wages, and some would limit the term "workers" to such as are employed in the production of wealth. It might seem also a condition of such appellation that the person should stand in the capacity of servant or worker for others, and not as worker on his own account. On the other hand, we must remember that in many occupations the workers are paid by the month or quarter, as in the case of seamen and domestic servants. The practice is very general also of paying by piece work, rather than by fixed wages; and in many cases the master contracts with one foreman, and he makes a sub-contract with other workers. And though, in a strictly economic sense, we should consider as workers only such as are producers of wealth, we cannot exclude from the general appellation and received meaning of "Working Classes" the large number of domestic servants, soldiers, police, &c. For practical purposes, therefore, we must take within the meaning of "Working Classes" all who, whether as workers for others or as workers for themselves, are employed in manual labour, be it productive of wealth or not.[1]

Artisans and labourers.

In analyzing the statistics of the number of persons employed, it is important first to distinguish between artisans and labourers; great difference exist-

[1] When the working classes are designated as the lower, in contradistinction to the upper and middle classes, the term indicating the social position of a portion of the people, might include many general dealers and the lower description of tradesmen.

ing between those who have passed an apprenticeship or who are recognised as journeymen and skilled labourers, and those who bring nothing but physical strength to aid them in their work. Unskilled labourers are agricultural labourers, most of the railway labourers, common seamen, builders' labourers, domestic servants, carriers, porters, &c. Of the 6,000,000 men, probably the half, or 3,000,000 men, may be considered as artisans, and the other half as labourers.

Town and country labourers.

The working classes constitute a large portion of the town population, yet many occupations are carried on in the country, and at sea. Agriculture, mining, and quarries, may be considered as country occupations. The army and navy are seldom quartered in towns. Of the 6,000,000 men at work probably 2,500,000 are country labourers, and 3,500,000 town labourers.

Producers and non-producers.

Another division should also be made. As I have already hinted at, there is a difference between producers and non-producers. Those who may be classed as non-producers are the domestic servants, army and navy, and police, and they number in all 1,800,000 out of 11,000,000.

Perquisites.

In estimating the earnings of the working classes, it is not sufficient to consider the amount of money wages, but we must add the money value of food, house accommodation, and other perquisites, usually given in some occupations.

Total annual earnings.

Upon such bases the total annual earnings of the number of workers in the different occupations in the United Kingdom appears in round numbers to be £418,000,000, of which the army, navy, police, and domestic servants, forming the non-productive portion, earn £69,000,000, and the remainder, the productive,

£349,000,000. Divided according to classes, the number and income of workers are as follows:—

Number and income of workers in the United Kingdom.

	Number of Workers.	Amount of Income.
		£
Professional . . .	300,000	10,000,000
Domestic	1,700,000	59,000,000
Commercial . . .	700,000	39,000,000
Agricultural . . .	2,700,000	84,000,000
Industrial . . .	5,600,000	226,000,000
	11,000,000	418,000,000

The number and earning of women and children under the same divisions are as follows:—

	Number of Workers.	Amount of Income.
		£
Professional . . .	8,000	100,000
Domestic	1,600,000	54,000,000
Commercial . . .	112,000	2,500,000
Agricultural . . .	730,000	9,800,000
Industrial . . .	2,650,000	58,800,000
	5,100,000	125,200,000

In relation to ages and sex in the following proportion:—

	Number of Workers.	Income.
		£
Men under 20 . .	1,200,000	23,000,000
„ 20 to 60 . .	5,900,000	293,000,000
Women under 20 .	1,300,000	27,000,000
„ 20 to 60 .	2,600,000	75,000,000
	11,000,000	£418,000,000

Average wages.

The average wages of labourers in the United Kingdom, resulting from the above, are:—Men under

20, 7/3 per week; 20 to 60, 19/: women under 20, 7/10 per week; 20 to 60, 11/: average, 14/5 per week. But taken separately the wages in the United Kingdom would stand as follows:—

	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Males under 20 . .	6/6	7/8	6/3
„ 20 to 60 . .	22/6	20/6	14/4
Women under 20 .	8/6	8/2	7/4
„ 20 to 60 .	12/6	10/6	9/9
Average . . .	15/6	14/0	11/7

Frequently, however, there are more workers than one in a family of five; and generally two or even three persons are earning something. Assuming, then, that there are two earners in each family, and taking the average wages of men, women, and children as a basis, the average income per family may be estimated at 31/ in England, 28/2 in Scotland, and 23/6 in Ireland.

Hours of labour.

The workmen usually labour six days in the week, and each day the hours of labour are from six to six in factories, and from eight to eight in other occupations, with one hour and a half for meals and shorter hours on Saturday. But in many occupations longer hours prevail, whilst in some even Sunday work is to a certain extent carried on. A movement has commenced in Lancashire for reducing the hours of labour from ten and a half to eight hours a day, or forty-eight hours per week.

Payment of wages.

The wages are usually paid weekly, and in some cases Friday is the pay-day; yet miners in Scotland are paid fortnightly, the workers being allowed in the mean time subsistence-money from day to day. The truck system being abolished by law,[1] wages are

[1] 1 & 2 William IV. c. 37.

usually paid in money; but there are cases where truck shops are still indirectly supported in violation of the law.[1]

Centres of industry.

Having thus ascertained the earnings of the working classes, I have endeavoured to obtain from the Report of the Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, the recent electoral statistics, and the judicial statistics, some facts illustrative of the connexion which exists between the different occupations and house accommodation, education, health, and drunkenness, and the following is a general summary of the information contained under each branch of occupation :—

INDUSTRIAL DISTRICTS.	Rent of Houses in Parliamentary Boroughs.			Signature by Education Marks in the Marriage Register.		Drunkenness.	Mortality.[2]
	Under £7.	£7 to £10.	£10 and upwards	Males.	Females.		
						Per cent.	Per cent.
England and Wales .	30	17	53	23	32	0·50	2·38
Cotton Districts . .	58	18	24	26	57	0·80	2·63
Woollen „ . . .	65	9	26	23	51	0 92	2·71
Silk „ . . .	48	26	26	19	37	0·47	2·31
Hosiery „ . . .	45	23	32	24	34	0·45	2·91
Colliery „ . . .	66	16	18	34	47	0·56	2·61
Earthenware Districts	60	13	27	35	45	1·02	2·61
Metal Districts . .	67	16	17	32	48	1·07	2·69
Iron Mining Districts .	41	50	59	48	64	0·67	2·99
Hardware Districts .	33	34	33	29	48	0·46	2·82
Cutlery Districts . .	56	18	26	22	36	0·53	2·78

House rent.

It will be seen from the above that, as regards the rentals of houses, upwards of 50 per cent. of the

[1] See Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Masters and Servants, 1866.

[2] The rate of mortality is for 1864, calculated on the number of deaths and population of 1861. The Supplement to the 25th Annual Report of the Registrar General gives the mean rate of death for 20 years, 1841–60; but the principal facts do not differ materially from the above.

houses are rented under £7, about 25 per cent. from £7 to £10, and 25 per cent. £10 and upwards. A good portion of the workers, however, are lodgers. The facts supplied in relation to builders in the metropolis show that four-fifths of the common labourers and two-thirds of the artisans are lodgers, and the same obtains, though not to the same extent, in other centres of industry.

Education. As regards education, it will be seen that the principal centres of manufacturing industry stand below the average for the whole of England and Wales; the average of those who signed the marriage register with marks being 30 per cent. of the men and 46 per cent. of the women; the proportion for England and Wales in 1864 having been 23·3 of men and 32·40 of women.

Drunkenness. The proportion of persons proceeded against for drunkenness amounted to about 7 per 1000, whilst the proportion for England and Wales was about 5 per 1000; a small proportion in either case, though such calculations are far from sufficient for ascertaining the amount of drunkenness, the instructions of the police being only to take up any person drunk and disorderly, annoying the people, or giving trouble to the police.

Health. The rate of mortality, also, is uniformly greater than the average in England and Wales, and this proceeds from diseases incident to the several occupations, as well as from overcrowding and imperfect sanitary regulations of towns, from insufficiency of food and from excess in drinking, or other bad habits. Much attention has, however, been paid of late to the first of these causes. The Sanitary Act declared a nuisance any factory, workshop, or workplace, not already under any Act for the regula-

tion of factories or bakehouses, not kept in a cleanly state, or not ventilated in such a manner as to render harmless as far as practicable any gases, vapours, dust or other impurities generated in the course of the work carried on therein, that are a nuisance, or injurious, or dangerous to health, or so overcrowded while work is carried on as to be dangerous or prejudicial to the health of those employed therein.[1]

The Hours of Labour Regulation Bill, now before the House, has provisions not only for regulating the time of labour for women and children in workshops, but also prescribing the use of a fan or other mechanical means in every workshop where grinding, glazing, or polishing on a wheel, or any other process is carried on by which dust is generated or inhaled by the workmen to an injurious extent.

These are the general results I have come to as regards the many subjects thus developed in this inquiry. Though in all of them the ground-work is based on actual facts,[2] the superstructure must, as regards the annual income of the working classes, be received only as an estimate. But it has been carefully calculated, and on the whole I am satisfied that the main results will be found as near the truth as the nature of such an inquiry admits of.

I have the honour to be,
Dear Sir,
Yours very faithfully,
LEONE LEVI.

M. T. BASS, ESQ., M.P.

[1] 29 & 30 Vict. c. 90 s. 19.

[2] For example, as regards the wages in the cotton manufacture, the following specific facts have been kindly contributed from a [cotton

cotton factory in which the machinery was good, but not of the most modern. The total earnings in this industry was obtained from a comparison of such evidence from different sources, and making due allowance for deductions and payments by the workmen themselves.

SPINNING DEPARTMENT.

Wages . .	5/	5/6	6/	6/6	7/	7/6	8/	Total.	Average.
Number of males from 13 to 18	2	2	4	3	5	7	2	25	6/8
Number of Females from 13 to 18 . . .	2	6	4	4	2	1	1	20	6/1
Wages . .	10/	13/	15/	17/	18/	19/	20/	22/	26/		
Males 18 years of age and upwards . . .	14	3	1	3	5	5	2	1	3	65	23/2
Wages . .	28/		32/		34/		36/		40/		
Males 18 years of age and upwards . . .	7		4		4		11		2		
Wages . .	8/	8/6	9/	9/6	10/	12/					
Females 18 years and upwards .	8	6	10	6	11	5				46	9/4

WEAVING DEPARTMENT.

Wages . .	5/6	9/6	11/6	11/	12/	
Males 13 to 18 .	3	8	14			25	10/2
Females 13 to 18 .	8	30		28	18	84	10/
Wages . .	8/	17/	18/6	21/	23/	30/	32/		
Males 18 and upwards . . .	3	26	20	12	5	8	3	77	20/
Wages . .	13/6	15/	17/	18/6	21/				
Females 18 and upwards . .	20	80	82	12	8	202	16/1
						7	13/
						551	14/10

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN THE DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Order.		OCCUPATION.	Men.		Women.		Total.
			Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
1	1	Dockyards	..	18,747	..	..	18,747
1	1	Post-Office	..	11,449	..	..	11,449
1	2	Police	..	37,362	..	..	37,362
2	1	Army	..	137,000	..	..	137,000
2	2	Navy	8,000	58,000	..	..	66,000
5	2	Domestic Servants	59,600	130,600	559,000	944,000	1,693,200
7	1	Railways	..	200,000	..	..	200,000
7	2	Carriers on Roads	16,100	106,500	30	450	123,080
7	3	Carriers on Canals	7,000	30,000	50	170	37,220
7	4	Seamen	20,000	180,000	..	..	200,000
7	4	Dock Labourers	3,200	32,000	..	..	35,200
7	5	Warehousemen	5,200	17,900	2,200	3,150	28,450
7	6	Messengers and Porters	53,300	41,000	1,360	570	96,230
8	1, 3	Agriculture	202,500	1,985,000	73,000	457,000	2,717,500
9	..	Fishermen	7,000	87,000	..	..	94,000
9	..	Others engaged in Animals	23,000	59,000	1,800	500	84,300
10	1	Printers	13,200	28,200	200	250	41,850
10	1	Bookbinders	2,150	5,920	3,350	4,850	16,270
10	2	Musical Instruments	1,100	4,780	..	..	5,880
10	3	Lithographers	1,678	5,120	195	350	7,343
10	4	Wood Carvers	2,400	15,690	2,660	4,120	24,870
10	7	Watch Makers	4,280	18,000	150	370	22,800
10	7, 8	Philosophical Instruments	1,190	4,610	140	290	6,230
10	9, 10	Cutlers	17,500	52,000	2,050	4,200	75,750
10	10, 16	Machine and Tools	23,800	94,000	2,850	4,300	124,950
10	11	Coach Makers	4,830	19,600	25	170	24,625
10	12	Harness Makers	4,900	16,450	450	800	22,600
10	13	Shipbuilders	10,900	42,100	..	..	53,000
10	14	Builders and Labourers	93,000	697,000	..	..	790,000
10	15	Cabinet Makers	13,050	35,500	1,550	4,950	55,050
10	17	Chemical	4,300	17,800	1,300	2,400	25,800
11	1	Woollen Manufacture	39,200	91,350	40,450	89,500	260,500
11	2	Silk Manufacture	10,000	31,000	25,800	55,500	122,300
11	3, 5	Hosiery and Lace Manufacture	7,000	24,500	156,250	43,000	230,750
11	3	Cotton Manufacture	89,500	156,900	158,500	206,500	611,400
11	5	Linen Manufacture	23,500	57,500	64,500	105,000	250,500
11	5	Boot & Shoe Makers	51,200	208,500	13,150	120,500	393,350
11	5	Hat Manufacture	1,460	9,480	930	2,280	14,150
11	5	Hairdressers	1,900	9,670	70	300	11,940
11	5	Tailors	24,300	115,700	..	..	140,000
11	5	Tailoresses and Dressmakers	..	..	131,400	430,000	561,400
11	5	Straw Plait Makers	2,010	2,230	15,890	29,800	49,930
		Carried forward	853,248	4,895,158	1,259,300	2,515,270	9,522,976

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED—*continued.*

Order.		OCCUPATION.	Men.		Women.		Total.
			Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
		Brought forward .	853,248	4,895,158	1,259,300	2,515,270	9,522,976
11	5	Glove Manufacture	680	2,800	7,080	16,000	26,560
11	6	Rope Manufacture	5,720	10,800	1,150	2,350	20,020
12	1	Millers . . .	6,700	32,200	..	410	39,310
12	2	Bakers and Confectioners . .	17,500	58,500	1,990	10,640	88,630
12	3	Sugar Refiners .	300	3,400	..	..	3,700
12	3	Maltsters & Brewers	2,230	28,500	..	280	31,010
12	3	Tobacco Manufacture . . .	1,720	4,350	540	460	7,070
13	1	Soap Boilers . .	1,320	5,800	75	235	7,430
13	1	Comb Manufacture	1,020	3,300	160	230	4,710
13	2	Skinners, Tanners, &c.	4,360	21,020	..	330	25,710
13	2	Leather Case Makers . . .	785	2,970	520	545	4,820
13	3	Brush Makers .	2,580	7,550	2,200	2,900	15,230
14	1	Gum, Oil, and Colourmen . .	2,200	8,600	..	..	10,800
14	2	Sawyers, Coopers, &c.	11,550	61,600	..	..	73,150
14	2	Other Workers in Wood . . .	3,740	5,450	1,250	1,810	12,250
14	2	Workers in Bark .	3,750	12,400	250	700	17,100
14	5	Paper Manufacture	6,200	16,600	6,000	10,200	39,000
15	1	Mining . . .	26,000	77,400	..	..	103,400
15	1	Coal Mining . .	90,000	200,000	..	..	290,000
15	2	Coalheavers . .	2,380	13,180	1,990	2,040	19,590
15	2	Chimney Sweepers	1,790	4,900	..	..	6,690
15	2	Gas Works . .	670	9,280	..	..	9,950
15	3	Limestone Quarriers . . .	7,450	39,700	..	..	47,150
15	3	Brick Makers .	9,800	29,850	1,200	1,700	42,550
15	4	Earthenware Manufacture . .	4,900	21,400	6,600	7,250	40,150
15	5	Glass Manufacture	4,590	10,670	530	750	16,540
15	6	Salt Manufacture.	720	2,480	..	..	3,200
15	7	Water Works . .	180	2,090	..	..	2,270
15	8	Gold, Silver, &c. .	5,450	15,450	1,450	1,600	23,950
15	9, 13	Metals other than Iron . . .	17,000	41,000	7,500	5,500	71,000
15	14	Iron	38,500	108,500	1,300	1,100	149,400
15	14	Hardware . . .	48,900	179,000	5,800	9,600	243,300
			1,183,933	5,935,898	1,306,885	2,591,900	11,018,616

AMOUNT OF EARNINGS IN THE DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS.

Order.		OCCUPATION.	Men.		Women.		Total.
			Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
			£	£	£	£	£
1	1	Dockyards	..	1,183,000	..	..	1,183,000
1	1	Post-Office	..	600,000	..	..	600,000
1	2	Police	..	2,242,000	..	..	2,242,000
2	1	Army	..	5,000,000	..	..	5,000,000
2	2	Navy	100,000	900,000	..	..	1,000,000
5	2	Domestic Servants	2,000,000	5,000,000	14,000,000	38,000,000	59,000,000
7	1	Railways	..	11,820,000	..	..	11,820,000
7	2	Carriers on Roads	418,600	6,091,800	360	11,700	6,522,460
7	3	Carriers on Canals	148,600	1,950,000	780	33,530	2,132,910
7	4	Seamen	624,000	12,744,000	..	..	13,368,000
7	4	Dock Labourers	41,600	1,664,000	..	..	1,705,600
7	5	Warehousemen	135,200	1,163,500	28,600	81,900	1,409,200
7	6	Messengers and Porters	970,000	1,599,000	17,680	14,820	2,601,500
8	1, 3	Agriculture	2,369,000	69,045,000	854,000	6,535,000	78,803,000
9	..	Fishermen	300,000	2,100,000	..	..	2,400,000
9	..	Others engaged in Animals	359,000	2,300,000	23,400	10,400	2,692,800
10	1	Printers	279,560	2,057,600	3,640	6,500	2,347,300
10	1	Bookbinders	55,900	461,760	69,680	169,260	756,600
10	2	Musical Instruments	28,600	316,600	..	..	345,200
10	3	Lithographers	43,628	342,860	3,042	7,280	396,810
10	4, 6	Wood Carvers	62,400	1,323,820	41,496	128,544	1,556,260
10	7	Watch Makers	111,280	1,638,000	3,120	9,620	1,762,020
10	7, 8	Philosophical Instruments	37,128	419,510	2,184	7,540	466,362
10	9, 10	Cutlers	455,000	4,056,000	31,980	87,360	4,630,340
10	10, 16	Machine and Tools	618,800	6,110,000	36,400	111,800	6,877,000
10	11	Coach Makers	100,464	1,274,000	520	4,420	1,379,404
10	12	Harness Makers	101,920	1,069,250	9,360	20,800	1,201,330
10	13	Ship Builders	283,400	3,064,880	..	..	3,348,280
10	14	Builders	1,200,000	46,000,000	..	..	47,200,000
10	15	Cabinet Makers	271,440	2,769,000	24,180	128,700	3,193,320
10	17	Chemical	89,400	1,018,000	20,300	50,000	1,177,700
11	1	Woollen Manufacture	1,019,200	5,937,750	736,190	2,093,800	9,786,940
11	2	Silk Manufacture	156,000	886,600	464,560	1,010,100	2,517,260
11	3, 5	Hosiery and Lace Manufacture	254,800	1,592,500	3,250,000	1,565,200	6,662,500
11	3	Cotton Manufacture	1,600,000	9,000,000	3,400,000	4,100,000	18,100,000
11	5	Linen Manufacture	427,700	3,588,000	1,006,200	2,730,000	7,751,900
11	5	Boot and Shoe Makers	1,065,000	12,468,500	239,330	3,759,600	17,532,430
11	5	Hat Manufacture	37,960	735,540	12,090	59,280	844,870
11	5	Hairdressers	49,400	628,550	910	7,800	686,660
11	5	Tailors	505,440	6,317,500	..	..	6,822,940
11	5	Tailoresses and Dressmakers	..	..	1,708,500	11,180,000	12,888,500
11	5	Straw-Plait Makers	31,350	116,000	289,200	774,800	1,211,350
		Carried forward	16,351,770	238,594,520	26,277,702	72,699,754	353,923,746

AMOUNT OF EARNINGS—*continued.*

Order.		OCCUPATION.	MEN.		WOMEN.		TOTAL.
			Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
			£	£	£	£	£
		Brought forward .	16,351,770	238,594,520	26,277,702	72,699,754	353,923,746
11	5	Glove Manufacture	10,600	262,000	147,200	665,600	1,085,400
11	6	Rope Makers . .	118,970	667,760	20,930	61,100	868,760
12	1	Millers . . .	174,200	1,842,000	..	8,500	2,024,700
12	2	Bakers and Confectioners . .	364,000	4,259,000	41,400	276,700	4,941,100
12	3	Sugar Refiners .	5,500	186,000	..	..	191,500
12	3	Maltsters & Brewers	51,500	1,334,000	..	5,800	1,391,300
12	3	Tobacco Manufacture.	35,800	282,750	8,400	14,300	341,250
13	1	Soap Boilers . .	24,000	377,000	1,200	4,800	407,000
13	1	Comb Manufacture	18,500	257,400	2,500	7,200	285,600
13	2	Skinners, Tanners, &c.	113,360	1,366,300	..	6,870	1,486,530
13	2	Leather Case Makers . .	24,492	270,270	10,816	17,004	322,582
13	3	Brush Makers .	40,000	430,000	28,600	75,400	574,000
14	1	Gum, Oil, and Colourmen . .	40,000	499,000	..	..	539,000
14	2	Sawyers, Coopers, &c.	300,000	1,700,000	..	..	2,000,000
14	2	Other Workers in Wood . . .	68,000	425,000	16,250	37,750	547,000
14	2	Workers in Bark .	58,500	806,000	3,200	18,300	886,000
14	5	Paper Manufacture	128,960	1,035,840	93,600	212,160	1,470,560
15	1	Mining . . .	405,600	4,427,280	..	..	4,832,880
15	1	Coal Mining . .	1,638,000	11,440,000	..	..	13,078,000
15	2	Coalheavers . .	43,300	788,000	25,900	42,400	899,600
15	2	Chimney Sweepers	30,700	280,300	..	..	311,000
15	2	Gas Works . .	13,936	554,990	..	..	568,926
15	3	Quarriers . . .	116,000	1,863,000	..	..	1,979,000
15	3	Brick Makers. .	204,000	1,940,000	15,600	35,000	2,194,600
15	4	Earthenware Manufacture . .	127,400	1,669,200	171,600	94,250	2,062,450
15	5	Glass Manufacture	71,600	832,200	8,300	15,600	927,700
15	6	Salt Manufacture.	11,200	161,200	..	..	172,400
15	7	Water Works . .	2,800	114,000	..	..	116,800
15	8	Gold, Silver, &c. .	113,200	1,406,000	22,600	33,200	1,575,000
15	9, 13	Metals other than Iron . . .	442,000	2,665,000	97,500	115,400	3,319,900
15	14	Iron Manufacture	1,201,200	8,463,000	21,200	28,600	9,714,000
15	14	Hardware. . .	1,017,000	11,635,000	94,500	249,500	12,996,000
			23,366,088	302,834,010	27,108,998	74,725,188	428,034,284
		Deduct for Masters 2½ per cent. . .	..	10,000,000	..	..	10,000,000
				292,834,010			418,034,284

Class I.—PROFESSIONAL.

Order I.

PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE GENERAL OR LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF THE COUNTRY.

ARTIFICERS AND LABOURERS IN HER MAJESTY'S DOCKYARDS.

Sub-Order 1.

Number of persons employed.

In the Royal Dockyards the number of workmen authorized for the establishment, in the estimates[1] for 1867-68, is 18,747.

Wages.

The wages in the dockyards are given as follows:—shipwrights, single-stationed, 7/6 to 5/; leading men, 5/6; workmen, 4/6; caulkers, 5/6; joiners, 5/4 to 4/4; leading men, 4/10; smiths, single-stationed, per 10 hours, 6/3 to 5/3; forgemen, 10/. Millwrights' shop, single-stationed, 5/9 to 4/6. Millwrights and fitters, 1st class, 5/6; 2nd class, 5/2; wheelwrights, 4/4; coopers, 3/10. Hired men are paid at the same rate as the established men. Workmen in the establishment enjoy the following advantages:—Regular and uninterrupted work throughout the year; work chiefly under cover; hours of employment vary according to the season of the year; short time in winter; holidays for which no deduction of pay is made; medical attendance; half-pay when hurt at duty; superannuation after ten years' service; pensions to widows of men killed in the service, and promotion to the highest

[1] Navy Estimates for 1867-68, pp. 160, 161.

class of officers in their respective trades. Hired men enjoy all the above advantages with the following exceptions: some of them are liable to be discharged on completion of certain work, superannuation, pension to widows, and promotion.

The amount to be voted for wages in dockyards and naval yards for the year 1867-8, including the yard wages and factory wages,[1] is £1,182,718. Annual amount of wages.

POST-OFFICE.

THE number employed as letter carriers, &c., in the Post-Office in 1866 was given in the estimate as 11,449. Number of persons employed.

The wages of letter carriers in London was given in a return published in 1865[2] as follows:—London town letter carriers, 1st class, 26/ to 30/; 2nd class, 20/ to 25/. Suburban, 1st class, 23/; 2nd class, 20/. Supplementary, 18/. Edinburgh, established, 18/ to 23/; supplementary, 18/. Dublin, established, 18/ to 20/; supplementary, 18/. Letter carriers are entitled to a retiring pension after service of 10 years. They receive a uniform which costs £4 15*s.* 4*d.*, and they have Christmas and other gratuities, estimated at £13. They have moreover a fortnight's leave of absence annually without deduction from wages; full wages during absence in consequence of accidents incurred in the service; assistance in the insurance of their lives, and medical attendance and medicine gratuitously supplied, both at the office and at their own houses. Wages.

The total annual earnings are given in the estimates[3] at £600,000. Annual amount of wages.

[1] Navy Estimates for 1867-68, pp. 56, 57.
[2] (284) of 1865.
[3] Estimates for Revenue Department in Civil Service estimates.

POLICE.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

ACCORDING to the judicial statistics for the year 1865 for England and Wales and Ireland, and the Eighth Report of the Inspector of Constabulary for Scotland,[1] the police force, exclusive of commissioners, chief constables, head constables, and superintendents, was as follows:—

England and Wales . . .	21,772
Scotland	2,700
Ireland.	12,890
	37,362

Wages.

The cost of the police force in England was £1,748,757; and the average cost in England was, for salaries and pay, £56 18*s.* 1*d.*, and for clothing and accoutrements, £5 18*s.* 3*d.* The pay of policemen in England varies, according to class, from 17/ to 22/; sergeants, 24/ to 26/ a week. In Ireland the cost of the police is stated at £767,000. A mounted constable receives £38; infantry, £36; an acting constable, £30 per annum. In Scotland constables receive 14/ to 20/, and sergeants, 21/ to 24/ a week: the judicial statistics are not yet published in the same manner as in England and Ireland; but the police are clothed, and in most cases lodged, while the Metropolitan, City of London, and Irish police are also entitled to a retiring allowance after a certain period of service.

Annual amount of wages.

Assuming £60 per head for the whole number, the total income of policemen will be £2,242,000.

[1] Judicial Statistics for 1865, for England and Ireland. Eighth Report of the Inspector of Constabulary of Scotland. Report of the Inspector of Constabulary of Ireland.

Order II.

PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE DEFENCE OF THE COUNTRY.

ARMY.

Sub-Order 1.

Annual amount of wages.

The army estimates for 1867-68 give the regimental pay, allowances, &c., of 137,000 men at £4,848,000, of which £3,384,000 for home, and £1,464,000 or the colonies. To this should be added the cost of the commissariat establishment, clothing establishment, barrack establishment, divine service, martial law and hospital establishment, services and supplies, amounting in all, after deducting the portion belonging to the colonies, to £1,619,000, making a total of about £5,000,000.[1]

The wages of privates are 1/11 in the Life Guards; 1/8½ Horse Guards; 1/1 in the Guards; and 1/ in the Infantry. In the Infantry regiments the corporals get 1/4; sergeants 2/; sergeant-majors, 3/4. The supplemental estimates provided for an increase of 2*d.* a day to the pay of all non-commissioned officers and men of the army and of the militia.

Health.

In 1864 the admissions into hospitals among the troops serving in the United Kingdom was at the rate of 967, the deaths at the rate of 9·99, and the constantly sick at the rate of 47·66 per 1000 of mean strength; the ratio of invaliding being at the rate of 31·74 per 1000.[2]

Education.

In 1866 the state of education in the army was as follows:—Could neither read nor write, 12·25 per cent.; could read but not write, 16·12 per cent.;

[1] Army Estimates for 1867-68.

[2] Army Medical Statistics.

could read and write, 65·47 per cent.; had a superior education, 6·16 per cent.[1]

Drunkenness.

The percentage of drunkenness in the total force was as follows :[2]—

Years.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1850	0·78	0·97	2·57
1860	0·74	0·34	0·84
1865	2·86	1·39	0·66

Savings.

The amount due by the military savings banks on the 31st March, 1864, was only £292,212, but many soldiers deposit their savings also in the ordinary savings banks.

NAVY.

Sub-Order 2.

Annual amount of wages.

The navy estimates for 1867-68 give the cost of petty officers and seamen, coast guard service and marines as follows :—38,000 petty officers and seamen, £1,244,000; 8,000 boys, £78,000; 4,000 petty officers and seamen (coast guard service), £125,000; 16,000 marines, £400,000: total, £1,847,000. Victuals and clothing, £1,242,000. Total, £3,089,000. Usually, however, about a third of the force only is engaged in the home stations, and therefore we may take the third of the cost, or £1,000,000, as the amount earned in this country.

Wages.

The wages of petty officers and leading seamen vary according to their classes from £30 8*s.* 4*d.* to £100 10*s.* per annum; those of able, ordinary and second class seamen vary according to their ratings from £16 14*s.* 7*d.* to £28 17*s.* 11*d.* per annum. Boys, 1st class, £10 12*s.* 11*d.*; 2nd class, £9 2*s.* 6*d.* There are moreover allowances and gratuities.

[1] Report of Council of Military Education, 1866.

[2] Report on Military Prisons for 1865.

In 1864-65 the total death rate was 13·9 per 1,000 of mean force; but excluding deaths by violence and drowning, it was 8·6 per 1000. The ratio of death in the home stations was 7·5; in foreign stations it differed from 8·3 on the Mediterranean to 103·8 per 1,000 on the south-east coast of America, in consequence of a great loss of life by the 'Bombay.' Of the total number of deaths, a third was attributable to injuries or drowning. Health.

According to a recent return, the state of education in the navy was as follows:—Not able to read, 10·91 per cent.; not able to write, 15·15 per cent.; read indifferently, 27·92 per cent.; write indifferently, 34·71 per cent.; able to read well, 61·17 per cent.; able to write well, 50·14 per cent. Education.

In 1862 the number of petty officers, seamen and boys, and non-commissioned officers and private marines convicted of crimes and offences was in the following proportion per 1,000 of the force:—Offences of the 2nd degree, theft, 12·39; desertion, 14·16; insubordination, 111·01: of the 3rd degree, drunkenness, 189·93; absence without leave, 746·93; minor offences, 799·07. Crime and drunkenness.

Order III.—The Professions.

This order includes clergymen, lawyers, physicians, authors, artists, actors, teachers, and scientific persons.

Class II.—DOMESTIC.

Order IV.—Women and Children.

This order includes persons returned only as wives, widows, children, or relatives and scholars, neither of which enter into the present inquiry.

Order V.

PERSONS ENGAGED IN ENTERTAINING AND PERFORMING PERSONAL OFFICES FOR MAN.

DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

The number employed in attendance and domestic service, including domestic servants, coachmen, grooms, gardeners, inn servants, housekeepers, housemaids, nurses, laundrymaids, charwomen, and others, was as follows, viz :—

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	41,000	97,000	416,000	660,000
Scotland	3,100	7,600	49,000	91,000
Ireland	15,500	24,000	94,000	193,000
	59,600	130,600	559,000	944,000

Wages.

The money wages of domestic servants are as follows :—a general servant receives £8 to £14 a year ; a kitchen-maid, £10 to £20 ; a laundry-maid, £12 to £20 ; a dairy-maid, £13 to £15 ; a still-room maid, £10 to £18 ; a housemaid, £8 to £20 ; a cook, £12 to £60 ; a housekeeper, £30 to £50 ; a steward-boy, £7 to £16 ; a groom, £15 to £20 ; a coachman, £30 to £50 ; a footman, £18 to £20 ; an under butler, £30 to £75 ; a butler, £50 to £70 ; a valet, £40

to £50; a groom of the chamber, £50 to £60; and a steward, £70 to £150. In the wages of domestic servants, especially among general servants, the wages in Scotland and Ireland range a little lower than in England. The largest number, however, consist of ordinary domestic servants. But to the money wages some additions must be made. In comparing the condition of the domestic servant with that of the artisan or worker in any other occupations, we must remember that, whilst nearly in all of them the workman has to provide himself with food, clothing and lodging, in the domestic service food and lodging are always added, and in many cases clothing also. When board wages are allowed, 12/ to 14/ a week for men, and 8/ to 12/ for women per week, are usually given. If we calculate the value of the articles of food consumed by a domestic servant, as well as the value of the lodging in a furnished house with all the necessary comforts, including fire, light, and washing of body linen and bed linen, 10/ a week at least must be added to the wages, or £26 per annum. Taking the whole number of domestic servants, the wages may be estimated for women and girls at £13 in money, and £22 for food, &c., or £35 per annum in all.

Annual amount of earnings.

The annual amount of earnings of domestic servants may be estimated as follows:—

				£	£
Men	59,600	under 20,	at	32	1,907,000
„	130,600	20 to 60,	at	40	5,224,000
Women	559,000	under 20,	at	25	13,975,000
„	944,000	20 to 60,	at	40	37,760,000
	1,693,200				58,866,000

Savings.

According to a recent return,[1] the savings banks

[1] Returns relating to Depositors in Savings Banks in the United Kingdom, 1866, and Return on Railways, 285 of 1866.

had 257,711 accounts opened with domestic servants, charwomen, nurses and laundresses; the total amount to their credit being £6,907,288, or an average of £27 per head. The Post-Office Savings Banks, also, have a considerable portion belonging to them.

Health. The condition of domestic service might seem highly favourable to health, yet the tables of mortality in the Appendix indicate a very different result.

Class III.—COMMERCIAL.

Order VII.

PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE CONVEYANCE OF MEN, ANIMALS, GOODS, AND MESSAGES.

RAILWAYS.

Sub-Order 1.

Extension of railway enterprise.

The progress of railway enterprise within the last ten years may be gathered from the following facts:[1]—

	1855.	1865.
Number of Miles open .	8,280	13,289
Capital paid up . . .	£297,584,709	£576,291,663
Number of Passengers .	118,595,135	251,862,715
Receipts from Traffic . .	£21,507,599	£35,890,113
Working Expenditure .	10,299,709	17,149,073
Net Receipts	11,207,890	18,602,582

Number of persons employed.

According to returns recently obtained, and to estimates made in the 'Railway Times,'[2] the number of persons employed in railways at present is 219,970, of whom 19,962 are officers, and 200,008 servants, and they are largely drawn from agricultural labour.

Nature of employment.

The work is divided into three departments. First, the passenger and traffic department; second, the engineering or permanent way; and third, the locomotive.

[1] Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom, 1866.

[2] 'Railway Times' of January 12, 1867.

Hours of labour. Twelve hours a day is the usual time, less two hours allowed for meals; and when night work is required the men work alternately by relays night and day. In some cases Sunday work goes on.

Conditions of service. In some lines a candidate as a porter must be 5 feet 7 inches in height; must be 21, and not exceeding 30 years of age; must be able to read and write, be free from bodily complaint, and produce testimonials of character.

Wages. In the passenger and traffic department porters earn 17/6, but gratuities from passengers, although disallowed by the companies, form a handsome addition to their income; policemen, 18/; ticket collectors, 25/; guards, 20/. In the permanent way the greatest number employed consists of labourers, and their wages are generally 3/ a day; platelayers receive 3/6; signalmen 20/ to 26/; carpenters, 27/ to 30/; and gaugers, 21/. In the locomotive department, engine-drivers 5/ to 7/6 per day; firemen 3/ to 4/ a day; fitters, 4/8 to 6/4; smiths, 5/ to 6/8; rivetters, 4/8 to 5/4; boiler smiths, 5/8 to 6/8; strikers and holders, 3/4 to 4/4; carriage makers, 4/6 to 5/4; waggon makers, 4/ to 5/; trimmers, 5/ to 5/8; moulders, 34/ per week. Taking the whole number, the average for servants, 160,000 in number, may be taken at 21/ per week; and the average for artificers, 40,000, at 30/ a week.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
160,000	Servants	at	21/	8,700,000
40,000	Artificers	at	30/	3,120,000
200,000				11,820,000

Accidents. Railway servants are greatly exposed to accidents. In the return presented to Parliament[1] the number

[1] 285 of 1866.

of servants of companies killed or injured in the United Kingdom was given at 122 killed, and 83 injured; whilst of passengers and others there were 99 killed, and 1,149 injured. The return, however, is very deceptive. Many railway companies do not report all the accidents which may happen to this class of persons, and a much larger number of persons are temporarily disabled by personal accidents which do not acquire public notoriety.

Railway Benevolent Institution.

The Railway Benevolent Friendly Societies' Institution is most valuable for the relief of necessitous orphans, children, and widows of officers and servants, and of disabled and necessitous officers and servants. Most of the railway companies have moreover a friendly society for the relief and maintenance of members in sickness or death, and to provide medical attendance for the members. Contribution to these societies is compulsory on most railways, and the amount is deducted from the wages.

CARRIERS ON ROADS.

Sub-Order 2.

Nature of the work.

THE traffic by road has not decreased with the extension of railways, as is apparent from the fact that the number of persons so employed in 1861 was considerably greater than in 1851. Three classes are included in this order, viz., coachmen, cabmen, and carmen. In 1865-66 there were issued in Great Britain 2,628 licences for stage carriages; 11,744 for post horses and carriages; and 17,160 for hackney carriages in London.

Hours of labour.

Coachmen and cabmen have long hours. Omnibus men in the metropolis work from 8 in the morning

till 11 at night. In Liverpool, from 7·30 A.M. to 9 P.M. Stablemen from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	20 to 60.
England . . .	12,000	82,000	480
Scotland . . .	2,000	13,000	..
Ireland . . .	2,100	12,500	..
	16,100	106,500	480

Wages.

Coal carmen earn 28/ per week; other carmen, 23/ in London, 18/ in the country. In Liverpool, carters earn 22/; in London, 25/. In London, omnibus drivers earn 6/ per day, and conductors 4/, about a third of the number working 7 days in the week. The omnibus driver finds his own whip, and the conductor his lamp. In Liverpool, drivers earn 22/6 and 25/ to 27/6; conductors, 15/ to 20/. In Glasgow, drivers earn 25/; cabmen, 20/. Cabmen have an uncertain income in London. The practice in many cases is for cab-owners to let their cabs to the cab drivers for a given sum, who assume on themselves the risk of the day's fares. On an average for carriers generally, the earnings may be taken at 22/ per man; boys under 20, 5/; and 10/ for women and girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men,	16,100	under 20,	10/	418,600
„	106,500	20 to 60,	22/	6,091,800
Women,	30	under 20,	5/	360
„	450	20 to 60,	10/	11,700
	123,080			6,522,460

CARRIERS ON CANALS AND RIVERS: BARGEMEN AND WATERMEN.

Sub-Order 3.

A WATERMAN is one who navigates, rows, or works for hire a passenger boat; a lighterman, or bargeman, one who navigates or works for hire a lighter, boat, or barge, conveying goods, wares, or merchandize. Number of labourers.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	6,500	26,000	50	170
Scotland	150	1,000	..	..
Ireland	350	3,000	..	..
	7,000	30,000	50	170

Condition of labour.

The watermen and lightermen on the Thames form a company, incorporated by Act of Parliament, exercising the sole privilege over all parts of the river Thames as far as Gravesend; but beyond the Thames no such restriction obtains.

Wages.

Lightermen, watermen, and canal men earn good wages. Those on the Thames earn on an average fully 30/ a week. Those beyond, probably less. Altogether, the average may be taken at 25/ a week per man, and 8/ for apprentices and boys, with 8/ and 6/ for women and girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	7,000	at	8/	148,600
„ 20 to 60,	30,000	at	25/	1,950,000
Women under 20,	50	at	6/	780
„ 20 to 60,	170	at	8/	33,530
	37,220			2,132,910

Health. This occupation is full of dangers. In many cases lightermen or bargemen work all night, and are exposed to night air and to the unhealthy exhalations of rivers and canals. They also work in small barges amidst large ships, and are met with on all sides by swift passing steamers. Whatever advantage they may have by working always in the open air, it is fully counterbalanced by the constant exposure to cold and wet.

SEAMEN.

Sub-Order 4.

Number of persons employed. ACCORDING to a return laid before Parliament (312 of 1866), the number of British seamen employed in the home and foreign trade of the United Kingdom and Channel Islands, exclusive of masters, for the year 1865 was as follows:—Mates, 24,292; petty officers, 13,546; able seamen, 72,558; ordinary seamen, 19,221; apprentices and boys, 20,063; other persons, 16,241; engineers, 3,178; firemen, 8,724; foreigners, 20,280; Lascars, 40: total, 197,643; and deducting foreigners and Lascars, 177,323. To this number, however, we must add at least 10 per cent. for those on shore, giving a total of little short of 180,000; of whom 160,000 are men, and 20,000 apprentices and boys.

Wages. The wages of seamen in the Port of London are given as follows:[1]—

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 292; and see Return of Wages of Seamen, 158 of 1867.

—	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.
Baltic	60/	60/	60/	60/	60/	60/	70/
Canada, British North America	60/	60/	60/	60/	70/	70/	70/
United States of America	55/	55/	55/	50/	50/	50/	55/
West Indies . . .	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
France, Holland, Spain, &c.	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/
Mediterranean Ports .	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/
South America. . .	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
Archangel and Ports of Norway . . .	60/	60/	60/	60/	60/	60/	65/
Mauritius	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
Sierra Leone . . .	55/	55/	55/	55/	55/	50/	55/
East Indies and China	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
Van Diemen's Land, Australia . . .	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
South Sea	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	50/	55/
Home Trade . . .	..	..	80/				

The wages of able seamen in the Mediterranean trade in 1866, out of London, rose, in consequence of the seamen's strike, to 70/; out of Liverpool, 50/; out of Hull, 60/; out of the Tyne, 65/. In the North American trade: out of London, 75/; Liverpool, 80/; Hull, 70/; the Tyne, 80/. In the East India and Australia: out of London, 70/; Liverpool, 60/; Hull, 55/; the Tyne, 60/. In the Baltic: out of London, 80/; Liverpool, 70/; Hull, 70/; the Tyne, 80/. In Glasgow an ordinary seaman earns 30/ to 50/ per month; in Dundee 10/ per week; 1st mate, £5 to £8 per month; 2nd mate, £4 to £5. Seamen usually get from 10/ to 15/ more per month in steamers than in sailing vessels, and firemen 10/ more than able seamen. The mate, 10/ to £2 more than the able seaman; the carpenter, the same as the mate. Boys and apprentices usually receive £10 a year, with board wages when on shore. Taking the whole number of seamen, and including the extra pay of artificers and other subordinate officers, the

wages may be taken at 70/ per month for men, and 16/ for boys and apprentices. To this we must add the value of food and berth at 12/ a week; making in all 118/ for men, and 52/ for boys, per month.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Apprentices and Boys	20,000	at 52/ per Month,		624,000
Men	180,000	at 118/	„	12,744,000
	200,000			13,368,000

Health. The registrar of births, deaths, and marriages states that the mortality of merchant seamen at sea was 1·99 to 100 living in 1864. The average rate in the 13 years 1852-64 was 1·93. In a paper read by Dr. McWilliams to the Social Science Association, the deaths in the merchant navy from 1852 to 1863 were given in an average at 18·98 per 1000. Seamen trading in long voyages are much exposed to scurvy. A report on the subject by Dr. Robert Barnes is published in the Sixth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council.[1] Much complaint is also made of the insufficiency of accommodation for seamen in merchant ships.[2]

Savings. The Seamen's Savings Bank on the 20th November, 1865, owed £43,854 to 1,425 depositors. Seamen now deposit their savings with the Post-Office Savings Banks, which admit of the transfer of money from place to place.

[1] See Correspondence between the Board of Trade and the Local Marine Board on the subject of Scurvy in Merchant Ships, 404 of 1865, and 126 of 1867.

[2] See applications made to the Board of Trade on the subject, 125 of 1867.

DOCK LABOURERS.

Sub-Order 4.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	3,000	29,000
Scotland	200	3,000
	3,200	32,000

Wages.

The wages of dock labourers are higher for loading than for discharging. The loaders earn 4/ a day when at work, but the dischargers employed by dock companies earn 3/ to 3/6 a day. In Liverpool[1] the first gang or constant men earn 23/ to 25/; the second gang or partially employed, 20/ to 22/. In Glasgow dock labourers earn 22/ to 26/. On an average, considering the uncertainty of the employment, the wages may be taken at 20/ and 5/. At a recent meeting held in Whitechapel, dock labourers complained that their wages were as low as 15/ to 18/. Generally, however, higher rates are paid.[2]

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20	3,200	at	5/	41,600
„ 20 to 60	32,000	at	20/	1,664,000
	35,200			1,705,600

(1) Report of Mortality Committee in Liverpool, 1866, p. 204.

(2) See 'Times' of 29th January, 1867.

WAREHOUSEMEN AND OTHERS ENGAGED IN STORAGE.

SUB-ORDER 5.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	4,400	16,000	1,800	2,600
Scotland	530	1,900	400	550
Ireland	280	20	..	..
	5,210	17,920	2,200	3,150

Wages. The wages of these are high. In Manchester many earn 30/ and 35/ a week. As an average, 25/ for men and 10/ for boys, 5/ for girls and 10/ for women, may be considered rather below than above the usual earnings.

Annual amount of wages.

			£
Men under 20,	5,200	at 10/	135,200
„ 20 to 60,	17,900	at 25/	1,163,500
Women under 20,	2,200	at 5/	28,600
„ 20 to 60,	3,150	at 10/	81,900
	28,450		1,409,200

MESSENGERS AND PORTERS.

SUB-ORDER 6.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	46,500	34,000	800	400
Scotland	4,100	3,500	500	50
Ireland	2,700	3,500	60	120
	53,300	41,000	1,360	570

Wages. The wages of porters are low. In Liverpool the average wages of cotton porters for a considerable

period has been 14/ a week; but there are gangs of men employed weekly who earn 21/, the captain earning 24/. Corn porters earn 11/ to 12/; the captain of gangs, 24/ to 26/. In London few labourers can be had for less than 18/ to 20/. On an average, we may take 15/ for men, 7/ under 20, 5/ girls, and 10/ women.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	53,300	at	7/	970,000
„ 20 to 60,	41,000	at	15/	1,599,000
Women under 20,	1,360	at	5/	17,680
„ 20 to 60,	570	at	10/	14,820
	96,230			2,601,500

Class IV.—AGRICULTURAL.

Order VIII.

PERSONS WORKING THE LAND AND ENGAGED IN GROWING GRAIN, FRUITS, GRASSES, AND OTHER PRODUCTS, AND ATTENDING TO ANIMALS.

AGRICULTURE.

Sub-Order 1, 3.

Acreage under crop.

According to a return recently published by the Board of Trade relating to the acreage of land under crop, bare fallows, and grass in the United Kingdom in the year 1866, the total acreage was as follows:—

	Total of Acreage under all kinds of Crops.	Total of estimated ordinary stock of Cattle.	Total number of Sheep.
England. . .	22,261,833	3,420,044	15,124,541
Wales . . .	2,284,674	546,966	1,668,663
Scotland. . .	4,158,360	968,637	5,255,077
Ireland . . .	15,549,796	3,742,647	4,270,027
	44,254,663	8,678,294	26,318,308

Relation of acreage to labourers.

The proportion between the acreage and the number of agricultural labourers in the United Kingdom is as follows:—England and Wales, 1 labourer to 14 acres; Scotland, 1 labourer to 13 acres; Ireland, 1 labourer to 20 acres. The proportion of agricultural labourers to population is, in England and Wales, 1 in 12; Scotland, 1 in 10; Ireland, 1 in 8.

Locality.

The following counties have the greatest proportion of adults employed in agriculture:—In Rutland 33·9 per cent., Lincoln 32·3, Cambridge 31·6, Hereford

31·4, Huntingdon 30·8, Westmoreland 30·8, North Riding Yorkshire 30·4, Wilts 29·3, Suffolk 28·7, North Wales 27·7 per cent. of the adult population were employed in agriculture.

Number of labourers employed.

The number of persons engaged in agriculture include farmers' sons, grandsons, brothers, nephews, agricultural labourers, farm servants, woodmen, gardeners, and nurserymen; but there are in addition many having holdings under 15 acres who work with their own hands or employ no servant. The total number may be estimated as follows:—

	Men.		Women.		Small Farmers.
	Under 15.	15 to 60.	Under 15.	15 to 60.	
England and Wales	128,000	1,060,000	65,000	311,000	90,000
Scotland . . .	42,000	146,000	2,300	100,000	20,000
Ireland . . .	32,500	390,000	5,800	46,000	275,000
	202,500	1,596,000	73,100	457,000	385,000

To these we must add 385,000 small farmers and crofters.

Wages in England and Wales.

The wages of agricultural labourers in England and Wales were given in Mr. Villiers' return for the year 1860, and its principal results were brought out in a paper on the subject read by Mr. Purdy of the Statistical Department of the Poor Law Board, at the Statistical Society.[1] From these documents it appears that the average wages in the half year of 1860 were 11/7 for men, and 4/2 for women and children; the weekly earnings by task work being calculated at 13/9. Basing his calculation upon Mr. Tufnell's

[1] 'Journal of the Statistical Society,' vol. xxiv. p. 328. Return of the average rates of weekly earnings of agricultural labourers in the Unions of England and Wales (14 of 1861).

report on Kent and Sussex, Mr. Purdy estimated the total earnings of agricultural labourers in England and Wales at £44 6/9, or 17/ a week per family. The Earl of Shaftesbury, in a letter to the 'Times,'[1] depicted the condition of Dorsetshire labourers in a very favourable manner; 14/6½ being calculated to be the average earning, each having a cottage either free or at a very small rent. Although the nominal wages may in some cases be as low as 8/ or 9/ per week in money, a free house and garden, fuel cut and dried, a chain of potato ground prepared and manured, and a bushel of wheat worth 5/ per month, raise the wages 4/ more per week, besides the gratuity given for extra work, and allowance for harvest work, &c. The wages in the different districts differ materially. In the northern and Yorkshire counties in immediate contiguity to the manufacturing districts the wages are higher than in the eastern, western, or midland counties; yet the force of public opinion and facility of communication tend to assimilate the wages throughout the country. The wages of agricultural labour have increased as follows:—1824, 9/4; 1837, 10/4; 1860, 11/7; 1866, 13/.

Wages in Scotland.

In Scotland the wages, according to a similar return, moved for by Sir Andrew Agnew,[2] also commented upon in another paper by Mr. Purdy at the Statistical Society,[3] were in 1860 as follows:—In the northern counties, men, 12/2¾; women, 5/1¾; children under 16, 4/. In the midland, men, 13/2; women, 5/7½; children, 4/½. In the southern, men, 13/2; women, 5/11½; children, 4/9½: giving an average for all Scotland at, men, 13/1; women, 5/7; children, 4/3¾.

(1) See 'Times,' January 29, 1866.

(2) 244 of 1861.

(3) 'Journal of the Statistical Society,' vol. xxv. p. 425.

The 'North British Agriculturist' published from time to time during 1864 accounts of the wages of agricultural labour in distinct farms in the different counties in Scotland, which supported the above averages. The wages are paid half in money, half in food. £20 in cash is frequently given, but the allowances vary, some having house and garden, coal and meat, some the produce of a number of sheep or cows. The small crofters, at least 20,000 in number, cannot be taken to earn more on an average than 20/ a week for themselves and families.

Wages in Ireland.

The wages in Ireland are given in another return for 1860, moved for by Lord Dunkellin,[1] and equally commented on by Mr. Purdy;[2] and according to these the wages in 1860 averaged 7/1½ for men, 3/11 for women, and 2/11½ for children.

United Kingdom.

Since 1860 there has been a gradual rise in agricultural wages in all counties, and it is necessary to bear in mind that farm labourers often derive assistance from other employments, as from straw work, lace work, gloving, mining, mill work, or needle making. In some cases the labourer holds a piece of land and keeps one or more cows; in other cases he earns something by carting for others. All things included, the average may safely be taken at 13/ a week for men, 5/6 a week for women, and 4/6 for children under 16 years of age, and the small farmers and crofters at 15/ per week. Separately, the average might be taken at 14/6, 5/, and 3/6 in England; 14/, 6/6, and 4/6 in Scotland; and 10/, 5/, and 3/6 in Ireland; and small farmers 15/ in England and Scotland, and 14/ in Ireland.

(1) 2 of 1862.

(2) 'Journal of the Statistical Society,' vol. xxv. p. 425.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men . . .	202,500	under 15,	at 4/6	2,369,000
	1,600,000	15 to 60,	at 13/	54,080,000
Women . .	73,000	under 15,	at 4/6	854,000
	457,000	15 to 60,	at 5/6	6,535,000
Small Farmers and Crofters	385,000		15/	14,965,000
	2,717,500			78,803,000

Agricultural labour in some counties, such as Lincolnshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Nottingham, is organized into agricultural gangs, consisting of a gang-master and a certain number (10 to 40) of women and young persons; in most cases the gangs travelling great distances to perform by contract a certain amount of field labour; a practice which is attended with most injurious physical and moral results.

Necessary expenditure of agricultural labourers.

In a report of Dr. Edward Smith on the food of the poorer labouring classes in England,[1] it is stated that the value of the food consumed by farm labourers was, upon the average, 2/11$\frac{7}{8}$ per adult, or 13/7$\frac{1}{2}$ per family weekly; including in this sum the value of every article of food in the localities referred to, such as vegetables, beer, and cider, which though it may not cost the labourer any money, yet resulted from his labour and was therefore a part of his daily income. But to the expenditure for food we must add that for clothing and rent. If we estimate the cost of clothing at fourpence a week and the rent at 2/, the necessary expenditure will be raised to 16/ per family; but nowhere, except in the poorest district, the income of any class is as low as the minimum necessary rate of expenditure.

[1] Sixth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1866.

Agricultural labour is healthy. The rate of mortality in Westmoreland was at the rate of 1·820; Rutland, 2·046; Lincoln, 2·052; North Riding of Yorkshire, 2·071; Wilts, 2·170; North Wales, 2·214; Suffolk, 2·220; Huntingdon, 2·233; Hereford, 2·235; and Cambridge, 2·256 per cent. Health.

The percentage of persons who signed their marriage register with marks was as follows:—Rutland, 31·1 males, 17·5 females; Lincoln, 21·2 men, 24·2 women; Cambridge, 31·5 men, 30 women; Hereford, 29·5 men, 25·6 women; Huntingdon, 30·9 men, 28·3 women; Westmoreland, 10·3 men, 20·6 women; North Riding of Yorkshire, 27·9 men, 24·4 women; Wilts, 27·9 men, 24·4 women; Suffolk, 36·0 men, 29·3 women; and North Wales, 34·9 men, 48·7 women. Education.

An elaborate report on the state of the dwellings of rural labourers was made by Dr. H. J. Hunter.[1] The general results were, that in 5,375 houses examined there were 24,770 persons, giving 4·6 to a house and 2·8 to a bedroom. In 2,195 single bedroomed houses there were 4 persons, or 2·2 adults and 1·8 children. In 1851 there were 4·41 persons to a house; in 1861 the proportion was 4·87 persons. Dwellings.

The amount owing to depositors per head of the population, which in England and Wales averaged £1 17/, in Hereford was £2 10/; Wilts, £2 1/; Lincoln, £1 19/; North Riding of Yorkshire, £1 17/; Suffolk, £1 12/; Cambridge, £1 10/; Huntingdon, 17/; Westmoreland, 10/ per head. Savings.

The number of persons committed for trial in 1865, which in England and Wales averaged 0·97 per 1000 of the population, in Hereford was 1·15; Lincoln, Crimes.

[1] Seventh Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1865.

0·89; Cambridge, 0·84; Wilts, 0·68; Suffolk, 0·56; Westmoreland, 0·44; Huntingdon, 0·40; and Rutland, 0·23 per 1000.

Drunkenness.

In the reports of the inspectors of constabulary the following statistics were given relating to public and beer houses and drunkenness in agricultural districts in the year ended 29 September, 1866:—

	Number of Public and Beer Houses to 1,000 population.	Number proceeded against as drunk and disorderly per 1,000 population.
Bedfordshire	7·81	2·09
Buckingham	8·47	2·36
Cambridge	10·05	·50
Ely, Isle of	6·32	1·79
Essex, with Harwich and Saffron Waldon	9·60	·97
Hertfordshire	9·40	2·20
Huntingdon	5·92	1·51
Leicester	4·96	1·35
Lincoln	5·50	2·64
Norfolk, with Thetford	6·09	1·51
Northampton, Peterborough liberty	8·09	·48
Oxfordshire	8·09	1·52
Rutlandshire	7·46	1·28
Shropshire, with Oswestry and Winlock	5·36	5·89
Suffolk, East, with Beccles, Eye, and Orford	4·14	·95
Suffolk, West, with Bury St. Edmunds	5·31	1·56
Average	6·41	1·92

Order IX.

PERSONS ENGAGED ABOUT ANIMALS.

FISHERMEN.

The census for 1861 gave the numbers employed as fishermen or fisherwomen as follows:— Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	3,025	11,639
Scotland	2,869	16,671
Ireland	1,160	5,692
	7,054	34,002

This is, however, far below the real number. The commissioners for the British fisheries in their report for the year 1865 [1] gave the number employed in the fisheries in Scotland at 44,459 fishermen and boys, exclusive of as many employed about the fisheries. The fishery commissioners of Ireland gave the number employed on the coast of Ireland during 1865 at 37,920 fishermen and boys. We have no such accounts for England and Wales, but the Life-Boat Institution, in their journal, stated that the fishery boats in the United Kingdom numbered about 40,000, probably manned by 160,000 men and boys, in the proportion perhaps of four men to one boy.

Among fishermen, some work by wages at so Wages.

[1] Report of Commissioners on the Sea Fisheries of the United Kingdom.

much a week, others are paid by a proportion of what they catch, and a large number divide the produce with the owner of the boat, in certain agreed proportions. In the oyster fishery at Swansea the oysters are all sold in bulk, and then each man gets 2/6 a thousand; the captain, 3/; and the boat, 4/; the owner taking one-third, whatever that may be. At Lerwick fishermen have the half of the catch, a share of the fishing, and other perquisites. At Plymouth the proceeds of the fish is divided into seven shares, the master getting a share and a half, the men a share, the boys a half share, and the owner three shares. But there is great uncertainty in the results. Two boats will sail together for the same fishing ground; one will return overladen with fish, the other quite disappointed. Taking the whole number of fishermen, the average earning may be estimated at 20/ for men, and 6/ for boys. In many cases, however, fishermen have other employments. They work on land, have a small potato ground, make kelp of seaweed, or get other occasional labour. And when they are paid by wages, all the time they are at sea they are fed at the expense of the owners.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	120,000	20 to 60	at	20/	6,240,000
„	40,000	under 20	at	6/	624,000
	160,000				6,864,000

Seeing, however, the small number given in the census as fishermen, it is safer to calculate their income, independently of what they may earn in other occupations, at £2,100,000 men, £300,000 boys; total, £2,400,000.

Hours of labour.

The labour is great and intermittent. For many

nights consecutively fishermen are out. In some cases, where the boats are large enough, they have sleeping accommodation; but when the boats are small the hardship is great.

When the fisherman is paid by wages he defrays no part of the expense; but it is otherwise when he works by shares. A pilchard boat will cost upwards of £200; a herring boat, £35 to £40; a trawl boat, about £20; a line boat, £60; a seine boat, £15, besides the cost of fitting her up. Cost of boats.

The great danger of life with fishermen is from wreck. In 1865, 98 fishing smacks were wrecked, but many isolated accidents occur of which we have no account. The Royal National Life-Boat Institution, and the Shipwrecked Mariners' Society—the one to save life and the other to assist and relieve all wrecked seamen — are conferring an immense benefit on the seafaring classes of the United Kingdom.[1] Health.

[1] The Royal National Life-Boat Institution has 162 life-boats, and by them and other special exertions it is enabled to save from 600 to 700 lives in a year. In 1866 the Life-Boat Institution has been the means of saving 921 lives. The Shipwrecked Mariners' Society has been instituted for three objects: 1st. To board, lodge, clothe, and forward to their homes, or to their nearest consuls, if foreigners, all wrecked seamen or other poor persons of all nations. 2nd. To assist seamen to replace their clothes, boats, &c., when lost by storm or other accidents of the sea, and to relieve their widows; and 3rd. To give gold and silver medals or other pecuniary rewards for any praiseworthy endeavour to save life from shipwreck. Other institutions of great benefit to seamen are: the British and Foreign Sailors' Society, the Sailors' Homes, and the recently-established Belvidere Institution and Mariners' National Pension and Widows' Fund.

HORSE-KEEPERS, GAME-KEEPERS, AND DROVERS.

Number of persons employed.

AMONG these are horse-keepers, game-keepers, drovers, and others engaged in minor occupations.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	8,000	42,000	..	..
Scotland	500	4,500	..	..
Ireland	14,500	12,500	1,800	500
	23,000	59,000	1,800	500

Wages.

The earnings of these classes of persons vary very much. The wages of horse-keepers are 21/ in London, and 15/ to 18/ in the country. Game-keepers and drovers earn 12/ to 16/ each per week. For the whole number we shall take 15/ for men; 6/ boys; 8/ women; 5/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	23,000,	under 20	at	6/	359,000
„	59,000,	20 to 60	at	15/	2,300,000
Women	1,800,	under 20	at	5/	23,400
„	500,	20 to 60	at	8/	10,400
	84,300				2,692,800

Class V.—INDUSTRIAL.

Order X.

PERSONS ENGAGED IN ART AND MECHANIC PRODUCTIONS, IN WHICH MATTERS OF VARIOUS KINDS ARE EMPLOYED IN COMBINATION.

PRINTERS.

Sub-Order 1.

Locality.

Printers are found in every part of the United Kingdom, but it is in London and Edinburgh that the bulk of the printing is carried on. Printing offices are usually small.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	10,200	25,000	170	230
Scotland	1,900	1,500	30	30
Ireland	1,100	1,700	..	..
	13,200	28,200	200	260

Conditions of labour.

The labour of printers is divided between compositors, readers, pressmen, and machinemen. An apprenticeship of seven years is required to become a journeyman printer, except that the eldest son of a printer has a right by patrimony to become a journeyman without indenture.

Hours of labour.

Among printers there are offices with day work only, and offices where night work is always going on, and offices with a mixed work. Those who work in the day commence at eight in the morning and end at eight in the evening. Those who work at

night commence at five P.M. and end between three and five A.M. In some offices Sunday labour is performed, especially newspaper work.

Wages.

The average earnings of compositors in a large printing office in the metropolis was 28/ ; of readers, 40/ ; of machine minders and engineers, 40/ ; of labourers and warehousemen, 24/ ; of pressmen, 31/6. Boys, 8/ per week. The wages in another large house averaged as follows: compositors, 33/3 ; pressmen, 30/ ; machinemen, 31/ ; readers, 43/5. In morning newspaper offices the earnings of a compositor vary from 50/ to 70/ per week, or even 80/. In a printing office some are paid by the piece, others are on the establishment. Those on the establishment in book houses cannot receive less than 32/, or 34/ if engaged on weekly papers. Those paid by the piece earn according as they are regularly employed, as they are quick in composition, make fewer errors, and have more or less remunerative kind of work. In Edinburgh, the wages are : compositors, settled wages, 26/ ; piecemen, 20/ ; pressmen, settled, 26/ ; machinemen, 27/ to 30/. Apprentice compositors, 7/ to 10/ ; machinemen, 9/ to 15/. Establishment wages vary in different towns from 21/ to 30/ per week. On an average, the wages may be taken at 30/ for men ; 8/, boys ; 10/, women ; girls, 7/.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	13,200	at	8/	279,560
„ 20 to 60,	28,200	at	28/	2,057,600
Women under 20,	200	at	7/	3,640
„ 20 to 60,	250	at	10/	6,500
	41,850			2,347,300

Health.

Dr. Edward Smith stated in his report, that in 100 readers there were 2·75 weeks of sickness yearly per man, and in 10 years 2·3 weeks a year ; the yearly

mortality among them being 1 in 44, and the average age at death 45 years.[1]

House rent.

A full half among the intelligent and steady printers are householders, living in houses at the rental of £25 to £35 per annum in the metropolis, though they often sublet part of the house.

BOOKBINDERS, AND BOOKFOLDERS.

Sub-Order 1.

Nature of the work.

THE work of bookbinders is generally divided into forwarding and finishing: forwarding, being the actual binding of the book, includes that part of bookbinding which consists in putting a book together, cutting and gilding or colouring the pages, and covering it with leather; finishing, being the ornamenting of the book, includes lettering of the title of the book on the back, decorating the book, or working patterns in different coloured leather on the book.

Hours of labour.

The hours of labour are generally from eight to eight, except on magazine days, when a good deal of overtime becomes necessary.[2]

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	1,600	4,900	2,300	3,200
Scotland	400	750	50	50
Ireland	150	270	1,000	800
	2,150	5,920	3,350	4,050

[1] Sixth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1864. Also see Report on Printers in the Fifth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1862.

[2] See Report on Bookbinders in the Fifth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1862.

Wages. The wages are generally paid by piece work, the earnings depending on the quantity of work performed. In London the piece-worker will earn as much as 50/ or 60/ a week; the time-worker, 35/; the finisher, 45/; the forwarder, 45/; and women from 12/ to 18/. Much depends also on the kind of work and the time of the year. In Edinburgh the wages are given at: men, time-workers, 20/ to 26/; girls, 8/ to 10/; piece-workers, 25/ to 35/; girls, 9/ to 14/. Apprentice boys, 2/6 to 10/; girls, 2/6 to 7/. On an average, the wages may be taken at 30/ for men; 10/ for boys under 20; 14/ women, and 8/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	under 20,	2,150	at 10/	55,900
	20 to 60,	5,720	at 30/	461,760
Women	under 20,	3,350	at 8/	69,680
	20 to 60,	4,050	at 14/	169,260
		16,270		756,600

Tools. The bookbinder requires no tools of any value.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENT MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER. 2.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	1,000	4,500
Scotland	100	200
	1,100	4,700

Wages. The wages of pianoforte makers and other instrument makers range from 25/ to 50/ and 60/ per week; on an average, they may be taken at 30/ for men, and 10/ under 20.

		£	
Men under 20,	1,100 at 10/	28,600	Annual amount of wages.
„ 20 to 60,	4,700 at 30/	316,600	
	5,800	345,200	

LITHOGRAPHERS.

Sub-Order 3.

The number engaged in this occupation may be estimated as follows :—

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,100	4,150	120	280	
Scotland	520	750	75	70	
Ireland	58	220	..	..	
	1,678	5,120	195	350	

This industry requiring a work still more skilled than printing has labourers receiving a large income.

The wages may be estimated, on an average, at 30/ for men; 12/ under 20; 8/ women, and 6/ girls. Wages.

					£	
Men	1,678,	under 20	at	10/	43,628	Annual amount of wages.
„	5,120,	20 to 60	at	30/	342,860	
Women	195,	under 20	at	6/	3,042	
„	350,	20 to 60	at	8/	7,280	
	7,343				396,810	

WOOD CARVERS AND TOY MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 4, 6.

Number of persons employed.

——	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	2,000	14,300	2,600	3,900
Scotland	330	1,100	50	140
Ireland	70	290	10	80
	2,400	15,690	2,660	4,120

Wages. The wages in these occupations are usually high, since they require consummate skill and precision. On an average, they are 35/ men; 10/ boys under 20; 12/ women, and 6/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

			£
Men	2,400	under 20, at 10/	62,400
„	15,690	20 to 60 at 30/	1,323,820
Women	2,660	under 20, at 6/	41,496
„	4,120	20 to 60, at 12/	128,544
	24,870		1,556,260

PHILOSOPHICAL INSTRUMENT MAKERS, OPTICIANS, SCALE MAKERS, AND SURGICAL INSTRUMENT MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 7, 8.

Number of persons employed.

——	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	1,100	4,300	140	290
Scotland	80	230	..	..
Ireland	10	80	..	..
	1,190	4,610	140	290

Character of the work. This work, which is highly skilled, is carried on

partly in shops and partly in private houses. The workman has little or no expense in tools.

The wages, mostly all by piece-work, are seldom as low as 20/ to 25/, and are often 50/ and 70/; for the whole number, 35/ for men, and 12/ for those under 20, may be taken. Wages.

				£	
Men under 20,	1,190	at	12/	37,128	Annual amount of wages.
„ 20 to 60,	4,610	at	35/	419,510	
Women under 20,	140	at	6/	2,184	
„ 20 to 60,	290	at	10/	7,540	
	6,230			466,362	

WATCH MAKERS.

Sub-Order 7.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England and Wales .	3,700	16,000	140	360	
Scotland	430	1,400	10	10	
Ireland	150	700	..	..	
	4,280	18,100	150	370	

The watch manufacture is divided into a large number of departments. There are finishers, motioners, jewellers, engravers, gilders, springers, case makers, cap makers, hand makers, index makers, pallet makers, balance makers, dial makers, pendant makers, glass makers, escapement makers, movement makers, engine turners, joint finishers, and fuzee cutters.[1] Descriptions of labour.

Present wages are given. Clockmakers, 23/, 25/, 28/, 30/, 42/; average, 29/. Watchmakers, 30/, Wages.

[1] See 'Birmingham and the Midland Hardware Trade,' p. 195.

40/, 50/, 60/, and 85/; average, 35/. On an average, we may take 35/ and 10/.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	4,280	at	10/	111,280
„	20 to 60,	18,000	at	35/	1,638,000
Women	under 20,	150	at	8/	3,120
„	20 to 60,	370	at	10/	9,620
		22,800			1,762,020

CUTLERY.

Sub-Order 9, 10.

Value of exports.

The declared value of exports of hardware, including cutlery, has been as follows: —

1845	£2,183,000
1855	2,960,391
1865	4,334,271

The value of ordinary cutlery exported in 1865 was £402,294.

Locality. Sheffield is the centre of the cutlery manufacture as Birmingham is of the hardware. The other localities of importance are Ecclesall Bierlow and Wortley.

Condition of labour. In most of the trades of Sheffield a full seven years' apprenticeship is required. The work is carried on partly in factories, but extensively in private houses and workshops.

Hours of labour. The hours of labour in workshops and private houses are very irregular.

Tools. The labourer must purchase tools which are often very expensive, or, if he has the use of them from his master, the rent of them is deducted from his wages.

Number of persons employed. The number of persons employed in the manufacture of cutlery, viz., knives and razors, needles and scissors, files and saws, scythes, shovels, spades, and other articles of mixed iron and steel in England in 1861 was 13,000 under 20, and 40,000 from 20 to 60;

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and in the manufacture of arms, 3,600 under 20, and 9,700 from 20 to 60. In the three classes, cutlery, arms, and surgical instruments, the numbers may be estimated at—

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	17,000	50,500	2,900	4,100
Scotland	400	1,300	150	120
Ireland	100	200	..	..
	17,500	52,000	2,050	4,220

Wages.

The wages in Sheffield[1] are given as follows:— forgers of files, 12 inches and upwards, 45/ to 62/; strikers, 35/ to 48/; forgers of files, under 12 inches, 30/ to 45/; grinders, 40/ to 50/; cutters, 25/ to 40/; hardeners, 28/ to 34/; saw makers, 30/ to 60/; grinders, 50/ to 70/; handle makers, 25/ to 35/; scissors forgers, 20/ to 30/; grinders, 27/ to 35/; filers, 20/ to 30/; finishers, 22/ to 32/; spring knives, best work, 30/; forgers, 30/; cutlers, 25/; scale and spring makers, 25/; table knives forgers, 28/; strikers, 24/; grinders, 30/; hafters, 21/. Some of these wages are, however, subject to the payment of labourers or assistants. In the needle manufacture men earn 12/ to 40/; women, 8/ to 15/; children, 1/6 to 5/. In the gun manufacture a workman is held to be an inferior hand who, in any of the skilled branches, cannot earn, single-handed, 30/ per week.[2] In all the branches there are men earning £3 to £6 a week. On an average, the wages may be taken at 30/ for men; 10/ under 20; 8/ women, and 6/ girls.

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 283.

[2] 'Birmingham and the Midland Hardware Districts,' p. 394.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	17,500	at	10/	455,000
„	20 to 60,	52,000	at	30/	4,056,000
Women	under 20,	2,050	at	6/	31,980
„	20 to 60,	4,200	at	8/	87,360
		75,750			4,630,340

Health. The rate of mortality in Sheffield was 3·29 per cent.; Wortley, 2·47; Ecclesall Bierlow, 2·6 per cent. of the population. This, however, scarcely indicates the extent of unhealthiness of certain of such trades. The average age of all the fork grinders is said not to exceed 29; of scissors grinders, 32; of edge tool and wool shear grinders, 33; of table knife grinders, 35. It is a sad fact, said Dr. Hall, the physician to the Sheffield Public Hospital, that fork grinders, for instance, are exposed to influences which rob them of 25 years of existence, and to that extent deprive their wives and families of the benefit of their labour, and fill the union poorhouses with widows and fatherless children.[1]

Rent of houses. The rents of houses in Sheffield were in the proportion of 56 per cent. under £7, 18 per cent. £7 and under £10, and 26 per cent. £10 and upwards.

Education. The number of persons who signed their marriage register with marks was in the following proportion:— Sheffield, 27 per cent. males, 42 per cent. females; Birmingham, 26 males, 35 females; Wolverhampton, 41 males, 53 females; Wortley, 21 males, 33 females; Ecclesall, 20 per cent. males, and 33 per cent. females.

Savings. The amount of money owing to depositors in Savings Banks averaged in Sheffield 3/4 per head of the population.

[1] See the Report on the Metal Manufacture of the Sheffield District in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission.

The number of persons proceeded against for drunkenness in Sheffield was in the proportion of 0·53 per cent.; in Birmingham, 0·57; and in Wolverhampton, 0·67 per cent. Drunkenness.

MACHINE, TOOLS AND IMPLEMENTS MAKERS.

Sub-Order 10, 16.

The declared value of exports of machinery, including steam engines and other kinds, was as follows:— Value of exports.

Declared Value.	
1845	£1,117,470
1855	2,243,166
1865	5,213,530

The great centres of the engine and machine manufactures are Newcastle-on-Tyne, Chorlton, Manchester, Lambeth, Greenwich, Glasgow, and Greenock. Locality.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	20,000	80,000	2,800	4,000
Scotland	3,300	11,000	..	..
Ireland	500	3,000	..	..
	23,800	94,000	2,800	4,000

In the engine works the hours usually are from 6 to 6.[1] Hours of work.

In engine works fitters earn 30/; turners, 30/; Wages.

[1] See Report on the Metal Manufacture of Lancashire in the Third Report of the Children's Employment Commission (1864); also the various reports on Metals and Machinery in the work entitled 'The Resources, Products, and Industrial History of Birmingham and the Midland Hardware District.' Hardwicke. London, 1866.

finishers, 30/; boiler makers, 34/; pattern makers, 33/; iron moulders, 36/; moulders, 30/; machine men, 18/ to 22/; hammer men, 14/ to 18/; riveters, 27/; labourers, 15/ to 20/. On an average, the wages may be taken at 25/ for men; 10/ under 20; 5/ girls, and 10/ women.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	23,800	at	10/	618,800
„	20 to 60,	94,000	at	25/	6,110,000
Women	under 20,	2,800	at	5/	36,400
„	20 to 60,	4,300	at	10/	111,800
		124,900			6,877,000

COACH MAKERS.

Sub-Order 11.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	3,800	16,000	25	170
Scotland	430	1,400	..	..
Ireland	600	2,200	..	..
	4,830	19,600	25	170

Wages.

In Edinburgh the wages are as follows:—Smiths, 1st class, 27/; 2nd class, 22/: vicemen, 1st class, 18/; 2nd class, 16/; 3rd class, 14/: body makers, 1st class, 30/; 2nd class, 22/: carriage makers, 23/: painters, 22/ and 20: trimmers, 1st class, 25/; 2nd class, 20/; 3rd class, 18/: wheelwrights, 22/; 2nd class, 18/: spring makers, 26/: strikers, 18/: labourers, 14/.[1] In Liverpool, carriage makers, 30/; body makers, 30/; trimmers, 32/. In London the wages range from 25/ to 40/. On an average, we

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 295.

may take 25/ men; 8/ boys under 20; 10/ women and girls.

					£	Annual amount of wages.
Men	under 20,	4,830	at	8/	100,464	
„	20 to 60,	19,600	at	25/	1,274,000	
Women	under 20,	25	at	8/	520	
„	20 to 60,	170	at	16/	4,420	
		24,625			1,379,404	

HARNESS MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 12.

	MEN.		WOMEN.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England and Wales .	3,600	13,000	450	800	
Scotland	500	1,250	..	..	
Ireland	800	2,200	..	..	
	4,900	16,450	450	800	

The wages may be taken as in the coach factory, at 25/; 8/; 8/ and 10/. Wages.

					£	Annual amount of wages.
Men	under 20,	4,900	at	8/	101,920	
„	20 to 60,	16,450	at	25/	1,069,250	
Women	under 20,	450	at	8/	9,360	
„	20 to 60,	800	at	10/	20,800	
		22,600			1,201,330	

SHIPBUILDERS, SHIPWRIGHTS.

SUB-ORDER 13.

THE tonnage of ships belonging to the United Kingdom was as follows:— Tonnage of ships.

	Tons.
1845	3,123,180
1855	4,349,334
1865	5,760 309

Locality. The great shipping yards are on the banks of the Thames, of the Clyde, and the Tyne.

The occupations connected with ships include shipwrights, boat-builders, sail-makers, ship-riggers, &c.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	8,700	32,500
Scotland	1,800	7,000
Ireland	400	1,600
	10,900	42,100

Wages. The wages of shipwrights are now 6/6 to 7/ in London; in Hull, 5/6; in Bristol, 5/; Glasgow, 5/; Dundee, 4/6; Belfast, 5/6. Ship smiths, 5/ to 5/6; sawyers, 4/4 to 4/8; and 4/ in Dundee; ship carpenters, 5/; joiners, 4/6 to 5/; apprentices, 5/ to 15/; labourers, 3/ to 4/ per day. Platers earn in Glasgow 28/ to 30/; angle iron-smiths, 24/ to 29/; rivetters, 26/; holders up, 16/; foremen have 7/ a day. The sail makers in Hull earn 24/ a week; the rope makers, 24/; in Bristol, 5/6 a day; in Glasgow, 4/; in Dundee, 21/ a week.[1] The work, however, is not constant. Much time is lost during the year, and the earnings, therefore, are less; altogether the average wages, calculating the cost of tools, may be taken at 28/ for men, and 10/ under 20.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	10,900,	under 20,	at 10/	283,400
„	42,100,	20 to 60,	at 28/	3,064,880
	53,000			3,348,280

Tools. The shipwright must provide himself with tools,

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 290.

which cost some £10 to £20, and he has a weekly expenditure of 1/ to keep them in order.

The hours of labour are generally 10 hours a day, or 60 hours a week. Hours of labour.

The rate of mortality in the principal shipping towns in England in 1864 was as follows :— Health.

Poplar, 3·54	Hull, 2·91	Birkenhead, 2·87
Rotherhithe, 2·42	Bristol, 2·80	South Shields, 3·21
Stepney, 2·49	Liverpool, 4·08	Sunderland, 2·50

The proportion of persons who signed their marriage register with marks was as follows :—Poplar, 13 per cent. males, 21 females; Rotherhithe, 16 males, 23 females; Stepney, 15 males, 24 females; Hull, 15 males, 29 females; Bristol, 19 males, 26 females; Liverpool, 24 males, 41 females; Birkenhead, 15 males, 25 females; South Shields, 24 males, 45 females; Sunderland, 23 males, 39 females per cent. Education.

The amount owing to depositors in savings banks averaged as follows :—Stepney, 28/ per head; Poplar, 12/; Bristol, £6 15/; Liverpool, £3 2/; South Shields, 24/ per head. Savings.

The number of persons proceeded against for drunkenness was :—South Shields, 2·82; Sunderland, 1·34; Liverpool, 3·13; Bristol, 0·45; Hull, 0·92. Drunkenness.

Rent of houses.

—	Under £7.	£7 and under £10.	£10 and upwards.
Hull	40	23	37
Liverpool	7	26	67
Tower Hamlets	5	11	84
Birkenhead	8	15	77
Bristol	19	18	63
South Shields	74	10	16
Sunderland	51	19	30

BUILDERS.

Sub-Order 14.

Number of persons employed.

THE building trades comprise bricklayers, carpenters and joiners, labourers, masons, plasterers, plumbers, glaziers and painters, and slaters. The census of 1861 gave the number employed in houses and buildings in England at 480,000; Scotland, 68,000; and Ireland, 57,000; or 615,000 males in all, exclusive of labourers. This number, however, includes house proprietors, agents, architects, surveyors, &c. Apart from these, the leading branches of labour connected with building were given as follows:—

	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Builders	15,658	1,084	919
Carpenters	177,818	26,315	30,499
Bricklayers	79,423	968	1,571
Masons	86,455	23,387	12,300
Plasterers	18,532	2,289	1,418
Slaters	5,262	3,324	2,319
Painters } Plumbers }	74,172	7,901	6,095
	457,320	65,268	55,121

And the same distributed according to their ages, and calculating the increase since 1861, may be stated as follows:—

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	73,000	355,000
Scotland	11,000	41,000
Ireland	9,000	51,000
	93,000	447,000

The employment is not regular. Frost stops the work of the bricklayer, and often that carpenter also; whilst the painter's work is con to a few months in the year. Considerable loss wages is thus experienced by them in the course the year, or they give themselves temporarily to other occupations.

The hours of labour differ much throughout the country. In London they are 56½ hours a week, except the bricklayer, 54; in Cheshire, 55½; in Cumberland, 58; in Derbyshire, 58½; in Lancashire, 55½; in Huddersfield and Leeds, 45; in Glasgow, bricklayers and carpenters, 48; masons, 42; plumbers, 57; in Edinburgh, 51; but bricklayers, 57: on an average, probably 55 hours. Hours of labour.

The workers must provide themselves with their own tools at the following approximate cost:— Tools.

	First Cost.	Annual Addition.
Bricklayers . . .	£1	5/
Masons	£1 10/	..
Plumbers	£2	10/
Carpenters . . .	£5 to £10	£1 5/
Plasterers	£3	10/
Joiners	£20 to £40	£1 15/

The wages in the building trades are now in London 8*d.* per hour 1st, and 7½*d.* for 2nd class men; in Cheshire, 5¾*d.* to 7⅛*d.*; in Cumberland, 5⅜*d.*; Derbyshire, 5⅞*d.* to 6⅛*d.*; Lancashire, 5¾*d.* to 7½*d.*; Norfolk, 4½*d.* to 5*d.*; Yorkshire, 6½*d.* to 8*d.*; Wales, 6*d.* to 6½*d*; Edinburgh, 6*d.* to 7½*d.* The greater number of builders are, however, in large and populous manufacturing towns, and in the metropolis. On an average, we may take 7*d.* an hour, or 32/ a Wages.

week; or, to be on the safe side, 30/ for adults, and 5/ for boys and lads.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	93,000	at	5/	1,200,000
„ 20 to 60,	447,000	at	30/	36,000,000
Labourers	250,000	at	15/	10,000,000
	790,000			47,200,000

House rent. The builders being scattered all over the country, this item cannot be obtained from the returns of rentals in the boroughs. A leading employer in the metropolis favoured me with a statement of the number of householders and lodgers among 50 carpenters and 50 labourers taken promiscuously in March, 1866. Of the 50 carpenters, 33 were married, and 17 single; 15 of them were householders, and 35 lodgers. The householders rented houses of the average annual rental of £36 15*s.* 4*d.*; some as high as £55, some as low as £10. The lodgers occupied apartments for which they paid 4/ to 5/ for one room, and 4/6 to 6/6 for two rooms; some paying 7/ a week for three rooms.

Householders and lodgers. Of the 50 labourers, 9 were householders, and 41 lodgers. The married men were living in houses rented at the annual average value of £19 10*s.* 1*d.*; the highest being £32, the lowest £10. The lodgers were living in apartments rented at 3/ to 4/6 for one room, and very few at 3/6 to 5/ for two rooms.

Health. The occupation is a healthy one, although liable to accidents; many of them live to a long age.

Education. The largest proportion of builders are not only able to read and write, but are great readers. The newspapers are always in the workshop. Many of them, too, attend schools of art, acquiring a knowledge of design and mechanical science.

Builders are great supporters of building societies, and they contribute largely to friendly societies. Savings.

CABINET MAKERS AND UPHOLSTERERS.

Sub-Order 15.

In this sub-order there are included cabinet makers and upholsterers, undertakers, chair makers, picture-frame makers, carvers and gilders, bedstead, mattress, and bed tick makers.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	10,600	28,000	1,400	4,100
Scotland	1,700	5,000	90	420
Ireland	750	2,550	60	430
	13,050	35,500	1,550	4,950

Wages.

Bed and mattress makers earn by the piece, 30/; sewing women, 11/; horse-hair curlers, 36/, out of which they pay a boy 4/ to 5/ a week; women sorting hair and feathers earn 6/ to 10/; cabinet makers, 32/ to 36/ per week; sometimes they earn 50/ to 60/; chair and sofa makers, 32/ to 34/; upholsterers, 36/; French polishers, 30/. On an average, we may take 30/ men; 8/ under 20; 10/ women, and 6/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	13,050	under 20, at	8/	271,440
„	35,500	20 to 60, at	30/	2,769,000
Women	1,550	under 20, at	6/	24,180
„	4,950	20 to 60, at	10/	128,700
	55,050			3,193,320

Hours of labour.

Cabinet makers work 58 hours a week; chair and sofa makers, 60 hours; upholsterers, 57 hours; French polishers, 60 hours.

Tools. The workman must provide himself with tools, which are costly.

CHEMICAL.

Sub-Order 17.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	3,200	14,500	500	1,100
Scotland	1,020	3,100	700	800
Ireland	100	200	100	500
	4,320	17,800	1,300	2,400

Wages. In Newcastle[1] the wages are, foremen, 5/4 per day; time keepers, 3/4; engine men, 3/10; foremen, boiler men, 3/8; sulphuric acid makers, 4/6; sulphate of soda makers, 4/8; crude soda, 4/6; carbonate of soda makers, 4/6; crystals of soda, 3/8; bicarbonate of soda, 3/8; bleaching powder makers, 5/2; lads and boys, 1/6 to 2/ a day. In Bristol the wages are the same; in Glasgow, something less. On an average, the wages may be taken at 22/ for men; 8/ boys; 6/ girls, and 8/ women.

Annual amount of wages.

			£
Men under 20,	4,300	at 8/	89,400
„ 20 to 60,	17,800	at 22/	1,018,000
Women under 20,	1,300	at 6/	20,300
„ 20 to 60,	2,400	at 8/	50,000
	25,800		1,177,700

(1) Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 289.

Order XI.

PERSONS WORKING IN THE TEXTILE FABRICS AND IN DRESS.

THE WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 1.

The value of imports and exports connected with this manufacture was as follows:—

Value of imports and exports.

—	Real value of Wool imported.	Declared value of Woollen Manufacture, and Yarn exported.	Declared value of Foreign and Colonial Wool exported.
	£	£	£
1845	..	8,760,042	..
1855	6,527,325	10,678,371	1,829,573
1865	14,930,430	25,526,306	6,790,741

Mr. Baines[1] estimated the value of the woollen manufacture in 1858 as follows:— Value of the manufacture.

	£	Per cent.
Raw material, foreign and British wool, shoddy, cotton warp, dye, wares, oil, soap, &c. . . .	12,000,000	60
Wages	5,000,000	25
Rent, wear and tear, profits, &c. . .	3,300,000	15
	20,300,000	100

[1] Journal of the Statistical Society, vol. xxii. p. 1.

Number of woollen and worsted factories.

In 1862 the number of woollen and worsted factories was as follows:—

—	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power Looms.
England and Wales .	1,968	3,092,376	63,312
Scotland	201	356,131	1,383
Ireland	42	23,274	123
	2,211	3,471,781	64,818

Locality.

The factories are principally situated in the counties of York and Lancaster, in England; Stirling, Roxborough, Clackmannan, and Selkirk, in Scotland; and in Cork, Dublin, and Kilkenny, in Ireland.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	36,500	81,000	35,000	72,000
Scotland	2,550	9,000	4,000	9,000
Ireland	150	1,350	1,450	8,500
	39,200	91,350	40,450	89,500

Nature of labour.

In the woollen manufacture there are three departments of labour, and about in the following proportions per cent.:—

Preparing woollen cloths . . .	24
Weaving	60
Dressing and finishing woollen cloth	16
	100

Hours of labour.

The woollen manufacture is under the Factory Act, and has the fixed hours of labour 60 hours per week, though wool sorters, drawers, dyers, and overlookers often do not work more than 56 hours per week.

The workers require no tools of their own. Tools.

The wages in Leeds are given at, spinners, 25/, males; females, 8/ to 9/; carders, males, 25/; females, 8/ to 9/; weavers, males, 10/ to 14/; females, 8/ to 12/; reelers, 8/ to 12/; cloth dressers finishers, men, 26/; boys, 8/ to 10/. In Huddersfield,[1] wool sorters earn, men, 22/ to 32/; scourers, 16/ to 21/; dyers, 15/ to 22/; teazers and willyers, 12/ to 21/; scribblers, 15/ to 21/; women, 8/6 to 9/; and girls, 6/ to 9/; slubbers, men, 22/ to 28/; condenser minders, men, 17/; women, 9/ to 10/; spinners, men, 18/ to 30/; piecers, girls, 6/ to 10/; warpers, men, 15/ to 26/; women, 14/; girls, 7/6 to 8/; boys, 5/6 to 8/; weavers, men, 18/ to 23/6; women, 10/ to 20/; girls, 16/; millers, men, 16/ to 26/; lads, 10/; dressers, tenterers, press setters, 18/ to 24/; drawers, 30/ to 35/; boys, 10/. At Batley, Dewsbury, Leicester, nearly the same wages are current. In Bradford and Halifax, machine wool combers, men, 14/; wool sorters, 20/ to 28/; washers, 16/6; dyers, 18/; engine tenters, 40/; feeders, 20/; stokers, 21/; weavers, men, 18/; women, 12/; reelers, women, 13/; drawers, women, 9/6; overlookers and foremen earn 25/ to 35/. In Glasgow the wages are 12/ to 17/ a week. For a general average, we may take 25/ for men; 10/ lads and boys; 9/ women; 8/ girls. Wages.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Males under 20,	39,200	at	10/	1,019,200
„ 20 to 60,	91,350	at	25/	5,937,750
Females under 20,	40,450	at	8/	736,190
„ 20 to 60,	89,500	at	9/	2,093,800
	260,500			9,786,940

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 277.

House rents. The rentals of houses in Leeds, Bradford, and Huddersfield, are as follows :—

—	£4 and under £7.	£7 and under £10.	£10 and upwards.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Leeds	70	8	22
Bradford	60	13	27
Huddersfield . . .	56	11	33
Stroud	73	5	22

Health. The rate of mortality in 1864 was as follows :— Bradford, 3·08; Huddersfield, 2·68; Leeds, 3·19; Melksham, 2·30; Stroud, 2·30; Kidderminster, 2·30.(1)

Education. The number who signed the marriage register with marks was as follows :—Leeds, males, 21; females, 39 : Bradford, males, 24; females, 53 : Huddersfield, males, 19; females, 49 : Melksham, males, 23; females, 26 : Stroud, males, 21; females, 24 : Kidderminster, males, 32; females, 40 per cent.

Savings banks. Leeds, per head, £3 3/; Bradford, £1 4/; Huddersfield, £1 13/; Kidderminster, £1 7/; Melksham, 10/ per head.

Drunkenness. Huddersfield, per cent., 2·37; Leeds, 0·82; Kidderminster, 0·38; Bradford, 0·13 per cent.

THE SILK MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 2.

Value of imports and exports. The value of imports and exports connected with this manufacture is as follows :—

(1) See Dr. Henry Julian Hunter's Report on circumstances endangering the Public Health of Leeds, in the Eighth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1866.

—	Real value of Raw Silk imported.	Real value of Silk Manufacture imported.	Declared value of Silk Manufacture and Yarn.	Declared value of Foreign and Colonial Silk exported.	Declared value of Thrown and Yarn Silk exported.
	£	£	£	£	£
1845	..	602,207	602,207	..	164,198
1855	5,493,304	1,797,471	1,082,592	1,880,088	441,751
1865	10,312,020	7,260,183	1,409,221	4,788,672	768,064

In 1862 the number of silk factories was as follows:— Number of silk factories.

—	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power Looms.
England and Wales .	761	1,305,910	10,635
Scotland	8	31,452	60
Ireland	2	1,182	14
	771	1,338,544	10,709

The silk manufacture is principally situated in Chester, York, Lancaster, Essex and Warwick, in England; Lanark and Renfrew, in Scotland; and Wicklow and Antrim in Ireland. Locality.

—	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England and Wales .	9,500	29,000	25,000	48,000	
Scotland	500	2,000	800	7,500	
	10,000	31,000	25,800	55,500	

The silk manufacture is carried on partly in factories, partly in private houses, each weaver having one or more looms; Spitalfields and Macclesfield being the seats of silks and silk velvets, and Coventry of ribbons. Nature of labour.

Hours of labour. The silk factories under the Factory Act work the legal number of hours per week; but hand loom weavers usually work from 7 or 8 in the morning to 9 or 10 in the evening.

Tools. The loom belongs to the weaver, and the cost is £2 to £4. Raw material, of some value, is entrusted with the labourer.

Wages. In Spitalfields the wages are regulated at so much per yard, the earnings varying from 11/ to 17/ per week; but deduction must be made of 6*d.* a week for light, and 1/8 a week for twisting and turning over. The wages of silk weavers have been diminishing from year to year. Previous to 1825, for making narrow velvets of 1000 reeds or under, at 52 wires, the weaver used to receive 5/, and at 44 wires, 4/ a yard. In 1860, for the same work of 1000 reeds, at 52 wires, they received 2/8 a yard; and now only 1/11. For making lady mantle velvet, 1000 reeds of 24 inches, previous to 1825 a weaver got, at 52 wires, 6/6; at 44 wires, 5/6. In 1859, he got for the same 3/; and now only 2/3 per yard. In the same manner, in Coventry, in 1860, the price per yard for a piece of ribbon, 36 yards, 16 penny widths, was 2/8; in 1865, 1/6, 20 penny widths; in 1860, 3/6; in 1865, 1/1. 24 penny widths, in 1860, 4/3; 1865, 2/. 30 penny widths, 1860, 5/; 1865, 2/6. 40 penny widths, in 1860, 6/6; 1865, 3/6. Dr. Edward Smith, in his Report on the food of the poorer labouring classes in the Sixth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, gave the income of families in Spitalfields at 16/ to 20/; Macclesfield, 7/ to 12/; Coventry, 12/ to 24/. On an average, we cannot take the wages at more than 11/ for men; 6/ boys; and 7/ women and girls.

					£	
Men	under 20,	10,000	at	6/	156,000	Annual amount of wages.
„	20 to 60,	31,000	at	11/	886,600	
Women	under 20,	25,800	at	7/	464,560	
„	20 to 60,	55,500	at	7/	1,010,100	
		122,300			2,517,260	

House rent.

	Under £7.	£7 and under £10.	£10 and upwards.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Derby	35	32	33
Macclesfield . . .	72	12	16
Coventry	39	34	27

Health. The rate of mortality was, Derby, 2·51; Macclesfield, 2·09; Coventry, 2/06 per cent.[1]

Education. The number of persons who signed their marriage register with marks:—Derby, males, 17; females, 29: Macclesfield, males, 20; females, 43: Coventry, males, 20; females, 40 per cent.

Savings banks. The amount at the credit of depositors was, Derby, £3 17/ per head; Macclesfield, £3 16/; Coventry, £3 4/ per head of the population; whilst in England and Wales the proportion was £1 13/.

Drunkenness. Derby, 0·78 per cent; Macclesfield, 0·25; Coventry, 0·40 per cent.

[1] See Dr. Edward Smith's Report on the food of the poorer labouring classes in England in the Sixth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1864. Also the Report on the Ribbon Trade of Coventry in the Fifth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1866. And the Report on Coventry Ribbon in Birmingham and Midland Hardware districts, 1866.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 3.

Imports and exports.

—	Real value of Raw Cotton imported.	Declared value of Cotton Yarn and Manufacture exported.	Declared value of Raw Cotton exported.
	£	£	£
1845	..	26,119,000	..
1855	20,848,000	34,869,000	2,475,000
1865	66,032,000	57,525,000	18,834,000

Number of cotton factories.

In 1862 the number of cotton factories was as follows :—

—	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power Looms.
England and Wales .	2,046	25,818,576	275,590
Scotland	152	2,041,139	21,624
Ireland	12	150,502	1,633
	2,210	28,010,217	298,847

Locality.

The cotton manufacture is situated principally in the counties of Chester and Lancashire, in England; Lanark and Renfrew, in Scotland; Antrim and Down, in Ireland.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England . . .	82,000	135,000	120,000	155,000
Scotland . . .	6,300	18,000	18,000	24,000
Ireland . . .	1,200	3,900	20,500	27,500
	89,500	156,900	158,500	206,500

Nature of labour.

In the cotton manufacture, independently of calico printing and other subsidiary occupations, there are

five departments of labour, which employ labourers in the following proportions, viz.:—carding, 15 per cent.; spinning, 20 per cent.; reeling, 15 per cent.; weaving, 44 per cent.; and steam engine, 6 per cent.

Hours of labour.

The cotton manufacture being under the Factory Act, the work is from 6 to 6 each day, except Saturday, less one hour and a half for meals. Children under 13 must attend school three days a week.

Tools.

The workers require no tools of their own.

Wages.

The wages in the cotton manufacture have considerably increased of late years. Mr. Baker, the Inspector of Factories, gave the following average rates for the following years:[1]—

	1850	1853	1860	1865
Spinners.—Men . .	20/	22/	27/	30/
Carders „ . . .	20/	22/	28/	35/ to 36/
Grinders „ . . .	14/	15/4	17/	16/
Rovers.—Women . .	12/	13/2	13/6	15/
Throstle Spinners.—Girls	8/9	9/8	11/9	..
Weavers	10/	11/	12/	8/6
Self-Acting	..	..	22/	30/

In 1850 the average rate per head in a cotton mill of 500 workers was, according to Mr. Chadwick, 10/3. In 1865 Mr. Baker gave the average at 13/2. In this manufacture frequently two or three of a family are employed, and good wages are earned rather from the accumulated income of several members of a family than from the high wages of its head. In a spinning mill the following were the wages earned by individual families:—

[1] Report of Inspector of Factories for the half-year ending 31st October, 1865 (1866.)

Parent			No.	Children.			Total.		
£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
2	0	0	4	1	12	0	3	12	0
1	18	0	3	0	16	6	2	14	6
1	8	0	5	2	11	0	3	19	0
1	6	0	4	1	14	0	3	0	0
1	10	0	4	1	12	6	3	2	6
1	12	0	4	2	3	0	3	15	0
0	18	0	5	2	14	0	3	12	0

The wages of an adult workman in a spinning mill range from 17/ to £2; women earn from 13/ to 21/; children, from 2/ to 2/9; young persons, from 5/ to 10/; a cipher earns 12/6 to 13/, preparatory to his becoming a spinner. The spinner is paid by weight produced, and employs and pays his own hands. The miscellaneous statistics give the wages in a cotton factory in Glasgow, in 1866, as follows, viz.:—In the carding department, women scutchers, 8/7; strippers, 11/6; drawing frame tenters, 10/; bobbin and fly tenters, 10/; girls, 5/9; grinders, men, 19/6; overlookers, 27/; spinning menders, women, 19/6; men, 26/; piecers, women, 13/6; spinners, women, 9/6. In the reeling, cage rulers, women, 10/6; warpers, men, 22/; women, 14/; dressers, men, 33/; sizers, men, 35/. In the steam engine, tenters, 24/ to 40/; stokers, 20/6; mechanics, 27/. In the weaving, warpers, 21/, men; weavers, men, 12/ to 20/; women, 9/. In calico printing, pattern designers, 35/ to 40/; colour mixers, 40/ to 50/; bleachers, 45/; dyers, 50/; machine printers, 40/ to 50/; die cutters, 40/; engravers, 25/ to 34/; firemen, 15/; wrights, 24/; labourers, 12/. A house in Glasgow gave the average earning in their factory as follows:—men, 30/; women, 12/; boys, 6/6. In Belfast, the wages

are given at, men, 30/ to 40/; spinners, 25/ to 35/; women, 9/ to 10/. A house in Manchester gave the earning of spinners at 30/ to 40/; ciphers, 12/6 to 13/; women, 8/6 to 9/. As a general average we may take the wages at, men, 22/; under 20, 7/; women, 10/; girls under 20, 6/.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men .	89,500	under 20,	at	7/	1,600,000
„	156,900	20 to 60,	at	22/	9,000,000
Women	158,500	under 20,	at	6/	3,400,000
„	206,500	20 to 60,	at	10/	4,100,000
	611,400				18,500,000

M'Culloch, in the 'Statistics of the British Empire,' gave the wages in the cotton manufacture at £17,000,000.

House rent.

The rentals in the cotton districts were returned to be in the following proportion. In the majority of cases, houses at 3/ a week, or £8 16/, are rented by operatives living in their own cottages. Houses at higher rent, where inhabited by working men, are generally let out for lodging, principally in the vicinities of the factories. All houses under 2/6 a week are of a very inferior character.

—	£4 and under £7.	£7 and under £10.	£10 and upwards.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Manchester . . .	32	24	44
Preston	58	21	21
Ashton	71	11	18
Bolton	61	16	23
Oldham	52	26	22
Stockport. . . .	70	11	19
Rochdale	62	13	25
Salford	45	27	28
Blackburn . . .	71	10	19

Health. Taking the rate of mortality in these towns as indicative of the healthiness of the manufacture, it appears that, whilst in England and Wales the rate of death in 1864 was 2·386 per 100 living, in Manchester the rate was 3·13; Salford, 2·82; Bolton, 2·77; Preston, 2·72; Blackburn, 2·61; Rochdale, 2·57; Burnley, 2·35; Stockport, 2·18; Oldham, 2·20; and Ashton, 2·00.

Education. The proportion of persons signing the marriage register with marks in the cotton districts was as follows:—Blackburn, 29 per cent. males, 65 per cent. females; Bolton, 30 males, 58 females; Preston, 27 males, 62 females; Stockport, 29 males, 55 females; Burnley, 29 males, 56 females; Oldham, 25 males, 59 females; Salford, 25 males, 55 females; Rochdale, 25 males, 59 females; and Manchester, 19 per cent. of the males, and 46 per cent. of the females.

Savings. The savings banks in 1865 had the following amount per head to the credit of the depositors:—Manchester, £3 12/; Preston, £2 6/; Stockport, £1 14/; Bolton, £1 6/; Blackburn, 18/; Burnley, 11/; Ashton, 10/9; Oldham, 6/2.

Drunkenness. According to the judicial statistics for 1865, the number of persons proceeded against before justices on the charge of drunkenness was as follows:—Manchester, 1·08; Bolton, 1·05; Blackburn, 0·83; Rochdale, 0·86; Preston, 0·68; Oldham, 0·67; Ashton, 0·67; Salford, 0·59 per cent.

THE LINEN MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 3.

Value of the manufacture.

—	Value of Flax as imported.			Value of Linen Manufacture and Yarn exported.	Value of Flax exported.
	Flax.	Hemp.	Jute.		
	£	£	£	£	£
1845	..	..	..	4,096,933	..
1855	3,317,122	1,471,649	447,167	5,050,994	44,782
1865	5,369,719	1,599,633	1,774,992	11,660,855	127,899

Number of factories.

—	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power Looms.
England and Wales .	143	345,192	2,161
Scotland	192	312,239	8,520
Ireland	105	594,805	..
	440	1,252,236	10,681

Locality.

The linen manufacture was principally situated in the counties of York and Lancaster, in England; Forfar and Fife, in Scotland; and Antrim and Down, in Ireland.

Number of persons employed.

The number of persons employed in the flax, linen, and jute manufacture, including other spinners and weavers in unspecified manufactures in Ireland, are as follows:—

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	2,500	6,500	7,000	7,000
Scotland	3,500	10,500	19,500	19,000
Ireland	17,500	40,500	38,000	79,000
	23,500	57,500	64,500	105,000

Nature of labour. The work comprises spinning, weaving, and bleaching.

Hours of labour. The manufactories are entirely under the Factory Act, working 10 hours a day, or 60 hours in a week.

Tools. Tools are provided by the manufacturers.

Wages. The wages in Leeds are given at, men, 25/; females, 7/ to 10/; carders, females, 7/ to 10/; weavers, females, 10 to 15. In Belfast, the preparer for spinning women, 1/2; girls, 9*d.* a day; the spinner women, 1/4½; girls, 10*d.* a day; stocklers, men, 3/6; boys, 1/8 and 9*d.*; mechanics, 2/6; overlookers, 5/. Weavers, winders, women and girls, 1/; warpers, beamers and dressers, men, 5/; women, 1/6; weavers, boys, 1/; women and girls, 1/8; overseers, 4/6. In Dundee,[1] preparers for spinning earn per week, boys, 4/6 to 8/; women, 6/ to 10/; spinners, women, 8/6 to 14/6; girls, 3/ to 6/; twisters, women, 8/6 to 12/; rulers, 8/ to 13/6; girls, 4/ to 5/; hacklers, men, 21/; boys, 4/6 to 7/; women, 6/6 to 10/6; warpers, men, 20/ to 25/; boys, 4/6 to 7/; women, 9/ to 14/; weavers, women, 8/ to 15/; winders, women, 7/ to 15/; girls, 4/ to 5/. In the bleachfield, men, per day, 3/; boys, 1/3; women, 1/6; girls, 1/. In the jute manufacture, preparers for spinning, women, 8/ to 9/; boys, 7/; spinners, women, 10/; girls, 7/; reelers, women, 10/6; winders, women, 10/9 to 12/4; girls, 8/9; warpers, 8/ to 14/7; weavers, women, 12/6 to 13/4 per week. A house in Dundee gives the average wages as follows:—men, 21/; boys, 10/; women, weavers, 10/; girls, 6/; winders, women, 9/. On an average, the wages may be assumed to be 24/ for men; 7/ boys; 10/ women, and 6/ girls.

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics.

				£
Men	under 20,	23,500	at 7/	427,700
„	20 to 60,	57,500	at 24/	3,568,000
Women	under 20,	64,500	at 6/	1,007,200
„	20 to 60,	105,000	at 10/	2,750,000
		250,500		7,752,900

Annual amount of wages.

HOSIERY AND LACE MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 3, 5.

Exports.

The value of exports of hosiery and lace was as follows:—

—	Declared Value of Exports.			
	Lace.	Stockings.	Hosiery.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
1855	470,538	552,947	211,705	1,235,190
1865	465,611	240,534	204,341	910,486

Value of the lace manufacture.

In a paper read by Mr. Felkin on the lace and hosiery trade of Nottingham to the British Association,[1] it was estimated that the materials worked up cost about £1,715,000; the wages and profits amounted to £3,415,000; and the net returns £5,130,000.

Number of factories.

—	Number of Factories.	Number of Hand Frames.	Number of Reads of Circular Frame.
England and Wales .	65	543	6,881
Scotland . . .	4	173	94
Ireland	..	..	..
	69	716	6,975

[1] 'Journal of the Statistical Society,' vol. xxix. page 538.

The miscellaneous statistics for 1866 gives the number of narrow hand frames in Nottingham and neighbourhood at 11,000; wide hand frames, 4,250; rotary frames, 1,000; circular frames, 1,200; sets warp frames, 400.

Locality. The hosiery manufacture is confined to Nottingham, Leicester, and Derby, in England; and Dumfries and Roxborough, in Scotland.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	6,800	23,500	156,000	42,000
Scotland	200	1,000	250	1,000
	7,000	24,500	156,250	43,000

Condition of labour. These manufactures are partly carried on in factories under the Factory Act, and partly in workshops or in the dwellings of the workers, in the same manner as the silk manufacture in Spitalfields or Coventry. The frame belongs in most cases to the manufacturer, and the worker pays a rent for it. A middleman superintends the work, and acts as between the hosier and the workers.

Hours of labour. The hours of labour in factories are 10 hours a day; but in private houses they are most irregular. In the lace manufacture the hours are 18 per day, workmen working in shifts 4 and 5 hours each.

Wages. In the hosiery manufacture in Nottingham and neighbourhood,[1] the wages are as follows:—In the narrow hand frames the men earn 10/6; women, 10/6: wide hand frames, men, 15/; women and girls, 4/: in the rotary frames, men, 20/ to 32/; women, 5/: circular frames, men, 20/ to 35/; women, 12/ to

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 280.

20/; and 7/ to 12/: warp frames, men, 16/ to 35/; women and girls, 8/: bleachers, men, 20/ to 35/; women, 8/ to 12/. In Leicester and neighbourhood in woollen and worsted hosiery goods, narrow frame work knitters, men, earn 9/ to 15/; wide frame, 20/ to 30/; circular frames, women, 12/ to 20/; hose seamers, 4/6 to 7/; sewing machine hands, 12/; menders, 10/; winders, 18/; fancy hosiery and underclothing finishing fabrics, women, 8/ to 16/; counter hands, 9/; menders, 10/; factory overlookers, men, 22/ to 50/; ordinary workmen, 14/ to 28/; skilled workmen, 20/ to 35/; dyers, labourers, 18/; trimmers, 20/ to 33/. In the cotton and silk machine, lace machine, bobbins and carriage prints, guides, combs, needles, &c., makers earn 33/; warpers, men, 25/; female replacing broken threads, 6/ to 8/; women to fill bobbins with thread, 12/; dressers, 10/; white minders and folders, 9/ to 12/. On an average, we may take the wages at 25/ men; 14/ lads and boys; 14/ women, and 8/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	7,000	at 14/		254,800
„ 20 to 60,	24,500	at 25/		1,592,500
Women under 20,	156,250	at 8/		3,250,000
„ 20 to 60,	43,000	at 14/		1,565,200
	230,750			6,662,500

House rents.

	Under £7.		£7 and under £10.		£10 and upwards.	
		Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.
Nottingham .	6,685	43	4,018	25	4,919	32
Leicester . .	6,816	48	2,942	21	4,369	31

Health.

The rate of mortality in 1864 was, Nottingham, 2·74; Leicester, 3·09.[1]

[1] See Report on the Hosiery Manufacture in the First Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1863.

Education. The proportion who signed their marriage register with marks was as follows:—Nottingham, men, 19·82; women, 33·51: Leicester, men, 22·17; women, 33·14 per cent.

Savings banks. The amount to the account of depositors in savings banks was, Nottingham, £4 12/ per head; Leicester, £2 5/ per head.

Drunkenness. The number of persons committed for drunkenness averaged as follows:—Nottingham, 0·28 per cent.; Leicester, 0·62 per cent.

BOOT AND SHOE MAKERS.

Sub-Order 5.

Value of exports. The value of exports of boots and shoes has been as follows:—

	£
1855	658,303
1865	1,462,309

Locality. Northampton is the centre of the boot manufacture, Stafford of the shoe manufacture, and Leicester of the slipper manufacture.

Number of persons employed.

——	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	38,000	161,000	11,500	104,000
Scotland	4,800	19,500	550	12,500
Ireland	8,400	28,000	1,100	4,000
	51,200	208,500	13,150	120,500

Wages. The wages in this manufacture are paid by piece work.[1] In Leicester finishers earn 30/; nailers, 22/;

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics, p. 293.

cutters, 23/6. In Bristol, closers, 20/; men's men, 23/; ladies', 22. In Edinburgh, closers, 25/; bootmen, 21/; shoemen, 18/; ladies' men, 21/; jobbers, 17/; binders, 13/. In Glasgow, closers, 18/ to 20/; ladies' men, 16/; men's men, 16/; jobbers, 18/ to 20/. By piece work, however, a large number earn 35/ and 40/. In Stafford, best hands earn net 26/ to 30/; a second hand, an average of 16/. The average wages earned at Stafford in a factory amounted to 32/. Women earn 10/ to 16/ a week; girls, 6/ to 8/. On an average, we may take the earnings at 23/ men; 12/ women; 8/ boys under 20; and 7/ girls under 20.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men .	51,200	under 20, at	8/	1,065,000
„	208,500	20 to 60, at	23/	12,468,500
Women	13,150	under 20, at	7/	239,330
„	120,500	20 to 60, at	12/	3,759,600
	393,350			17,532,430

Tools. The shoemaker has many tools to purchase. He requires much heat, and in thread and other things expends 1/6 a week.

Hours of labour. Very irregular. The work is mostly done in private houses at all hours.

Health. The rate of mortality in Stafford was 2·43; in Northampton, 3·14 per cent. [1]

Education. The proportion who signed the marriage register by marks was as follows:—Stafford, 25 per cent. males; 26, females: Northampton, 18 per cent. males; 24 per cent. females.

Savings. The amount owing to depositors in savings banks averaged, Stafford, £1 11*s.*; Northampton, £5 12*s.*

[1] See Report on Bootmakers in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1865.

Drunkenness.

In Northampton the average number of persons proceeded against for drunkenness was 0·45 per cent.

Rent of houses.

—	Under £7.	£7 to £10.	£10 and upwards.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Stafford	44	24	32
Northampton. . .	19	30	51
Leicester	48	21	31

HAT MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 5.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	1,300	8,300	900	2,200
Scotland	80	580	30	80
Ireland	80	600	..	..
	1,460	9,480	930	2,280

Wages.

An extensive manufacturer gives the wages of his establishments in London and country as follows:—151 men as body makers, finishers, shapers, their wages varying from 28/ to 50/ per week; average, 34/. 62 men employed at machinery, and packers, porters, &c.; average, 28/. 50 boys; average, 9/. 101 women and girls, hat lining makers, trimmers, &c.; average, 12/. 152 cap makers; average, 9/. In Bristol the wages are, body makers, 25/; silk finishers, 25/; tippers off, 30/; crown sewers, 7/; trimmers, 7/. In Glasgow, body makers, 34/; silk finishers, 36/; tippers off, 40/; crown sewers, women, 10/; trimmers, 12/. In Edinburgh, body makers, 33/; silk finishers, 30/; tippers off, 30/; women crown sewers, 5/; trimmers, 10/6. On an

average, we may take the wages at 30/ men; 10/ boys; 5/ girls, and 10/ women.[1]

				£
Men under 20,	1,460	at	10/	37,960
„ 20 to 60,	9,480	at	30/	739,440
Women under 20,	930	at	5/	12,090
„ 20 to 60,	2,280	at	10/	59,280
	14,150			848,770

Annual amount of wages.

HAIRDRESSERS.

Sub-Order 5.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,600	8,700	70	300	
Scotland	170	530	..	..	
Ireland	130	440	..	..	
	1,900	9,670	70	300	

The wages paid to hairdressers are from 20/ to 30/ and 35/ per week. On an average, we may take, 25/ men; 10/ under twenty; 10/ women, and 5/ girls. Wages.

					£
Men	1,900	under 20,	at	10/	49,400
„	9,670	20 to 60,	at	25/	628,550
Women	70	under 20,	at	5/	910
„	300	20 to 60,	at	10/	7,800
	11,940				686,660

Annual amount of wages.

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 296. See also Report on Hatters in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1865.

TAILORS.

Sub-Order 5.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	15,700	88,200
Scotland	3,700	12,500
Ireland	4,900	15,000
	24,300	115,700

A strike took place among the London tailors last year, when they obtained a rise on their wages as established in the log, whereby a workman may be able to earn 7*d.* per hour. In Liverpool the average wages all the year round are 25/ a week. They are paid 5*d.* per hour for every garment; the number of hours for making each garment being fixed by the club. A great number of them earn 35/ a week. On an average, for the whole number, we may take 25/ and 8/.[1]

Annual amount of wages.

			£
Men under 20,	24,300	at 8/	505,440
„ 20 to 60,	115,700	at 21/	6,317,500
	140,000		6,822,940

[1] See Report on Tailors in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1865. See also Report on the Manufacture of Wearing Apparel and on Seamstresses in the Second Report of the Children's Employment Commission.

TAILORESSES, DRESSMAKERS, SEAMSTRESSES, AND STAY-MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 5.

—	Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	86,000	318,000	
Scotland	9,400	38,000	
Ireland	36,000	74,000	
	131,400	430,000	

Wages.

In Mr. Hood's report to the Children's Employment Commission, the wages of adults were given at from 6/ to 18/ a week, machinists getting 21/. Workers by machine earn 10/ to 18/; braiding and embroidery, 15/ to 20/; wholesale millinery, 15/ to 21/; plain needlework by hand, 2*d.* to 3*d.* per hour. There are two busy seasons in the year; three months in the spring and three months in the autumn. During the interval employment is scarce, and wages are very low. On an average, the wages cannot be put higher than 7/ for girls, and 13/ for adult women.

				£	Annual amount of wages.
31,400	under 20,	at	5/	1,708,500	
430,000	20 to 60,	at	10/	11,180,000	
561,400				12,888,500	

STRAW PLAIT MANUFACTURE, AND STRAW HAT AND BONNET MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 5.

—	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,900	2,000	15,500	28,300	
Scotland	110	230	200	500	
Ireland	..	..	190	1,000	
	2,010	2,230	15,890	29,800	

Wages.

In a paper read at the Society of Arts in December, 1860, the earnings of a good plaiter were given at from 5/ to 7/6 a week, and those of sewers at 8/ to 12/. Boys employed in bleaching, dyeing, and brushing plait, earn 5/ to 8/ a week; men, 12/ to 15/; blockers and pressers, 20/ to 30/ per week. On an average, wages may be taken at 20/ for men, and 6/ for boys; 10/ and 7/ for women and girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	under 20,	2,010	at 6/	31,350
„	20 to 60,	2,230	at 20/	116,000
Women	under 20,	15,890	at 7/	289,200
„	20 to 60,	29,800	at 10/	774,800
		49,930		1,211,350

GLOVE MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 5.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	660	2,750	7,000	15,800
Ireland	20	50	80	200
	680	2,800	7,080	16,000

Wages.

This is principally a domestic industry. Men can cut 14 to 25 dozens per week, and they may earn, on an average, 26/. The general average, however, is 16/ to 20/. A woman can make, when she employs all her time in it, 1½ dozen to two dozens per week; but few persons work at it all day, having household duties to attend to. The average wages are 5/ to 7/ per week; but a good hand will earn double that of a common hand. The sewing is almost invariably done separately from the embroidery, welting, &c.,

and by different hands. A good sewer can make 30 or 36 pairs per week, and get 3/3 per dozen pairs. A pointer, embroiderer, or welter can earn, according to her opportunities and capabilities, from 4/ and 5/ to 18/, or even 20/ per week. On an average, we may take 18/ for men, and 8/ women and girls.

				£
Men	under 20,	680	at 6/	10,600
„	20 to 60,	2,800	at 18/	262,000
Women	under 20,	7,080	at 8/	147,200
„	20 to 60,	16,000	at 8/	665,600
		26,560		1,085,400

Annual amount of wages.

ROPE MAKERS.

SUB-ORDER 6.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
—	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	4,100	7,500	600	1,200	
Scotland	1,300	2,600	550	1,150	
Ireland	320	750	..	..	
	5,720	10,850	1,150	2,350	

The wages of rope makers[1] in Hull were 24/; Glasgow, 18/; Dundee, 19/. Sailmakers in Hull, 24/; Bristol, 5/6 a day; Glasgow, 24/ a week; Dundee, 21/. On an average, the wages may be taken at 22/ men; 8/ boys; 7/ girls, and 10/ women. Wages.

				£
Men	under 20,	5,720	at 8/	118,970
„	20 to 60,	10,800	at 22/	667,760
Women	under 20,	1,150	at 7/	20,930
„	20 to 60,	2,350	at 10/	61,100
		20,020		868,760

Annual amount of wages.

[1] Miscellaneous Statistics for 1866, p. 290.

Order XII.

PERSONS WORKING IN ARTICLES OF FOOD AND DRINK.

MILLERS.

Sub-Order 1.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women and Girls, 20 to 60.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	5,500	24,800	270
Scotland	580	3,200	20
Ireland	620	4,200	120
	6,700	32,200	410

Wages. In Liverpool millmen earn 24/ to 30/; labourers, 21/. In Dublin millers earn 18/ to 24/. The wages generally may be taken at 22/ for men, and 10/ for boys under 20; and 8/ women and girls.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	6,700	under 20,	at	10/	174,200
„	32,200	20 to 60,	at	22/	1,842,000
Women	410		at	8/	8,500
	39,310				2,024,700

BAKERS AND CONFECTIONERS.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	12,000	43,700	1,450	8,750
Scotland	3,500	7,700	310	940
Ireland	2,000	7,100	230	950
	17,500	58,500	1,990	10,640

Wages. The wages are 20/ for men, and 8/ for women and children. A journeyman baker, however, receives,

besides, partial board and lodging, of the value of at least 8/ a week more; so that the average may be taken at 28/ and 8/ per week; 10/ women, and 8/ girls.

The work is arduous, and long hours are generally complained of. The Commissioners on Journeymen Bakers have made recommendations for shortening the hours of labour. Hours.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	17,500,	at	8/	364,000
„	20 to 60,	58,500,	at	28/	4,259,000
Women	under 20,	1,990,	at	8/	41,400
„	20 to 60,	10,640,	at	10/	276,700
		88,630			4,941,100

SUGAR REFINERS.

SUB-ORDER 3.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	200	2,600
Scotland	100	800
Ireland	..	..
	300	3,400

Wages.

In Bristol the wages are as follows:—boilers, 33/ a week; pan men, 23/; filter men, 17/6; warehouse men, 18/6; upstairs men, 17/6; engineers, 22/; stokers, 23/. In Glasgow, pan men, 30/ to 40/; filter men, 17/; warehouse men, 18/; upstairs men, 16/ to 17/; engineers, 28/ to 30/; stokers, 20/ to 22/. The wages in a sugar refinery in London are given as follows:—melters, including attending to the melting, bag filters, and washing out of bag filters, 25 men, 3/6, and 6 boys, 1/1½, per day. Char, including men burning char, filling and emptying

char filters, &c., 31 men, 3/9, and 7 boys, 1/6. Curing, including men attending vacuum pans, drying machines, riddles warehouse, 37 men, 3/7, and 6 boys, 1/3; 4 engineers and plumbers, 6/7; 5 carpenters, 6/1; 3 bricklayers, 6/10; 7 stokers, 3/10, and 3 boys, 1/7; 1 smith, 4/6; 1 striker, 3/4; 2 watchmen, 4/; 17 labourers, 3/7, and two boys, 1/; 9 coopers, piece workers, 6/6; 1 cooper, breaking down old casks, 6/, and 3 boys, 1/8; and 10 lumpers, piece work, 6/8.

On an average, the wages may be taken at 23/ per man, and 7/ boys.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	300	at	7/	5,500
„	20 to 60,	3,400	at	21/	186,000
		3,700			191,500

MALTSTERS AND BREWERS.

SUB-ORDER 3.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men. Under 20.	Men. 20 to 60.	Women, 20 to 60.
England	2,000	26,500	280
Scotland	190	1,400	..
Ireland	40	600	..
	2,230	28,500	280

Wages.

In Leicester mashhouse men and cellar men earn 21/ a week; malthouse men, 18/; upper and under draymen, 17/6; coopers, 22/; labourers, 17/. In Edinburgh, mashhouse men, 17/6; upper, 20/, and under draymen, 18/; coopers, 25/; carpenters, 25/; labourers, 17/. In Burton-upon-Trent, brewers, 17/; grainers, 26/; racking-room men, 15/6; hoppers, 14/6. The average wages earned in Mr. Bass's brewery were as follows:—men, 20/4, with an allow-

ance of 2/3½ a week; boys, 8/7, with an allowance of 1/2¾. In Liverpool labourers earn 21/ to 25/ a week.

On an average, we may take 18/ for men; 9/ for boys, and 8/ women.

					£	
Men	2,230	under 20,	at	9/	51,500	Annual amount of wages.
„	28,500	20 to 60,	at	18/	1,334,000	
Women	280	20 to 60,	at	8/	5,800	
	31,010				1,391,300	

TOBACCO MANUFACTURE.

SUB-ORDER 3.

	MEN.		WOMEN.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,100	2,950	520	360	
Scotland	560	450	20	100	
Ireland	60	950	..	..	
	1,720	4,350	540	460	

In Liverpool, in tobacco and cigar factories, journeymen make by piece work 30/ to 40/ per week; journeywomen, 14/ to 15/; apprentice girls, from 15 to 21 years of age, 6/ to 10/; little girls, strippers, &c., 2/ to 6/. In Edinburgh men earn 25/; boys, 2/6 to 10/; women, 10/ to 14/; girls, 4/ to 8/. On an average, we may take the wages, 25/ men; 8/ boys; 12/ women, and 6/ girls.[1] Wages.

					£	
Men	1,720	under 20,	at	8/	35,800	Annual amount of wages.
„	4,350	20 to 60,	at	25/	282,750	
Women	540	under 20,	at	6/	8,400	
„	460	20 to 60,	at	12/	14,300	
	7,070				341,250	

[1] See Report on the Tobacco Manufacture in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1865.

ORDER XIII.

PERSONS WORKING IN ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

SOAP BOILERS AND TALLOW CHANDLERS.

SUB-ORDER 1.

Number of persons employed.

—	MEN.		WOMEN.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	1,100	4,700	65	160
Scotland	70	350	6	15
Ireland	150	750	3	60
	1,320	5,800	74	235

Wages.

The wages of soap boilers are 5/ a day; assistant boilers, 3/6; vatmen, 3/4; firemen, 4/2; furnace men, 3/9; engine drivers, 4/. On an average, the wages may be taken at 25/ for men; 7/ boys; 6/ girls, and 8/ women.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	1,320	at	7/	24,000
„ 20 to 60,	5,800	at	25/	377,000
Women under 20,	75	at	6/	1,200
„ 20 to 60,	235	at	8/	4,800
	7,430			407,000

COMB MANUFACTURE.—BONE AND IVORY TURNERS.

SUB-ORDER 1.

Number of persons employed.

—	MEN.		WOMEN.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	640	2,650	80	100
Scotland	350	550	80	130
Ireland	30	100	..	..
	1,020	3,300	160	230

The wages in this occupation, which is essentially skilled work, are, on an average, 30/ for men; 7/ boys; 6/ girls, and 12/ women. Wages.

					£
Men	1,020	under 20,	at	7/	18,500
„	3,300	20 to 60,	at	30/	257,400
Women	160	under 20,	at	6/	2,500
„	230	20 to 60,	at	12/	7,200
	4,710				285,600

Annual amount of wages.

SKINNERS, TANNERS AND CURRIERS.

SUB-ORDER 2.

—	MEN.		WOMEN.	Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	20 to 60.	
England	3,700	18,000	280	
Scotland	500	1,950	50	
Ireland	160	1,070	..	
	4,360	21,020	330	

Tanners, common labourers, earn 21/ to 22/ per week in London, and 13/ to 14/ in the country. Skilled men earn 13/ to 16/ in the country. But the greater number are on piece work; their average earning is 23/. In town the skilled workers earn 30/ to 40/ per week; curriers, men, employed to dress the leather, make about 50/ in London, and about 30/ in the country; a few men engaged in splitting hides, which require fine handling, earn £4 per week; saddlers earn 5/ to 6/ per diem in town, and 20/ to 24/ per week in the country. On an average, the wages may be assumed at 25/ for men, 10/ for boys, and 8/ for women. In Edin- Wages.

burgh the wages are, tanners, 25/; curriers and dressers, 34/; beam men and shed men, 25/; tanners' labourers, 15/.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	4,360	under 20, at	10/	113,360
„	21,020	20 to 60, at	25/	1,366,300
Women	330	at	8/	6,870
	25,710			1,486,530

LEATHER CASE MAKERS, AND OTHER WORKERS IN LEATHER.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	650	2,550	480	450
Scotland	45	170	10	5
Ireland	90	250	30	90
	785	2,970	520	545

Wages.

In the finer works of leather, including leather case, portfolio parchment, and vellum manufacture, the wages are higher than those of tanners and curriers. On an average, their earnings may be taken at 35/ for men, and 12/ under 20; 12/ women, and 8/ for girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	785	under 20, at	12/	24,492
„	2,970	20 to 60, at	35/	270,270
Women	520	under 12, at	8/	10,816
„	545	20 to 60, at	12/	17,004
	4,820			322,582

BRUSH MAKERS.

Sub-Order 3.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	2,400	7,000	1,900	2,700
Scotland	120	330	100	150
Ireland	60	220	200	50
	2,580	7,550	2,200	2,900

Wages.

In the manufacture of hair, including the making of brushes and brooms, the wages are, 22/ men; 6/ boys; 10/ women, and 5/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	2,580	under 20, at	6/	40,000
„	7,550	20 to 60, at	22/	430,000
Women	2,200	under 20, at	5/	28,600
„	2,900	20 to 60, at	10/	75,400
	15,230			574,000

Order XIV.

PERSONS WORKING IN VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

GUM, OIL, AND COLOURMEN.

Sub-Order 1.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	2,000	8,000
Scotland	150	420
Ireland	60	180
	2,210	8,600

Wages. The wages in this industry are, on an average, 25/ for men, and 7/ for boys.

Annual amount of wages.

		£
3,200 men	under 20, at 7/	40,000
8,600 „	20 to 60, at 25/	499,000
10,800		539,000

SAWYERS, COOPERS, AND TURNERS.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	8,100	46,000
Scotland	1,750	8,000
Ireland	1,700	7,600
	11,550	61,600

Wages. Coopers earn 33/; sawyers, 30/ to 35/. In Scotland they earn 24/ to 29/. On an average, we may

take the wages at 28/ for men, and 10/ for boys under 20.

					£	
Men	11,550	under 20,	at	10/	300,000	Annual amount of wages.
„	61,600	20 to 60,	at	28/	1,700,000	
	73,150				2,000,000	

OTHER WORKERS IN WOOD.

SUB-ORDER 2.

	Men.		Women		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,310	4,000	970	1,270	
Scotland	1,220	450	150	70	
Ireland	210	1,000	130	470	
	3,740	5,450	1,250	1,810	

The finer works in wood are well paid, and the average earnings may be taken at 30/ for men; 7/ for boys; 5/ girls; 8/ women. Wages.

					£	
Men	under 20,	3,740	at	7/	68,000	Annual amount of wages.
„	20 to 60,	5,450	at	30/	425,000	
Women	under 20,	1,250	at	5/	16,250	
„	20 to 60,	1,810	at	8/	37,750	
		12,250			547,000	

WORKERS IN BARK, CANE, RUSH AND STRAW.

SUB-ORDER 3, 4.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	2,850	11,000	250	700	
Scotland	900	300	..	..	
Ireland	..	1,100	..	..	
	3,750	12,400	250	700	

The workers in cane, rush, &c., receive, on an Wages.

average, 25/ per week for men; 6/ for boys; 5/ girls, and 10/ women.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	3,750	at	6/	58,500
„	20 to 60,	12,400	at	25/	806,000
Women	under 20,	250	at	5/	3,200
„	20 to 60,	700	at	10/	18,300
		17,100			886,000

THE PAPER MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 5.

Number of paper mills.

THE number of paper mills was as follows:—

—	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
1840	362	48	32	402
1850	328	48	39	415
1860	306	52	26	384
1866	288	54	22	364

The diminution of paper mills does not imply diminution of production, but the erection of larger mills instead of smaller ones, which the introduction of machinery permitted.

Locality. The paper manufacture is scattered all over the country; but the great centres are the banks of the Thames, and the vicinities of Edinburgh.

Hours of labour. In large factories the hours are regular, from 6 to 6; but in hand-made paper factories the work is most irregular, even boys being kept sixteen and more hours a day.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	5,000	13,000	4,300	7,300
Scotland	900	2,000	1,600	2,100
Ireland	300	1,600	150	800
	6,206	16,600	6,050	10,200

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This number includes all who are engaged in paper, viz.: rag gatherers, stationers, paper stainers. In the manufacture of paper proper, the number of persons employed is 13,300 in England and Wales; 4,400 in Scotland; and 402 in Ireland.

The wages in a paper-mill vary considerably. At the mills in the vicinities of London, the wages are, rag engineers, 22/; rag boilers, 23/9; poachers, 23/; bleachers, 25/; finishers, 26/; firemen, 24/6; machine men, 36/; stuff engineers, 36/9; mechanics, 36/6. In a mill whose wage book has been examined for one week, the average wages of all men employed, including labourers, amounted to 25/6. The average wages of the boys under 20 were 12/9; of women, 8/; girls, 3/9 a week. In Scotland rag boilers earn 15/3; bleachers, 17/4; engineers and poachers, 17/4; beaters, 19/8; machine men, 21/4; sizers, 16/11; dryers, 15/10; cutters, 16/6; finishers, piece work, 23/; firemen, 20/. At a paper mill in Valleyfield the average wages were, men, 17/2; young men and boys, 7/; women, 8/3; girls, 4/1. In the paper hanging, colour mixers earn 12/; glaziers, 15/; block printers, piece work, 20/ to 40/; marblers, 20/ to 40/. On an average, we may take the wages at 24/ men; 8/ boys and women; and 4/ girls.[1] Wages.

				£
Men under 20,	6,200	at	8/	128,960
„ 20 to 60,	16,600	at	24/	1,035,840
Women under 20,	6,000	at	6/	93,600
„ 20 to 60,	10,200	at	8/	212,160
	39,000			1,470,560

Annual amount of wages.

[1] See Report on the Paper Manufacture in the Fourth Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1865.

ORDER XV.

PERSONS WORKING IN MINERALS.

METALS MINING.

Sub-Order 1.

Quantity produced.

THE product of mines other than coal in 1865 was as follows :[1]—

	Iron.		Tin.	
	Tons.	£	Tons.	£
England and Wales	8,410,928	2,949,102	14,122	782,284
Scotland. . . .	1,470,000	367,500	..	..
Ireland	29,117	8,202	..	..
	9,910,045	3,324,804	14,122	782,284

	Copper.		Lead.	Zinc.
	Tons.	£	Tons.	Tons.
England and Wales	186,827	842,202	86,064	13,768
Scotland. . . .	14	70	2,364	33
Ireland	11,457	85,666	2,024	4,040
	198,298	927,938	90,452	17,841

Locality.

Iron ore is most extensively produced in Yorkshire, Staffordshire, Cumberland, Lancashire, Scotland; tin ore in Cornwall and Devonshire; copper ore in Cornwall and Devonshire; lead ore in Durham, Yorkshire, Cardiganshire, and Denbighshire; zinc in the Isle of Man, Ireland, Denbighshire, Cornwall, and Derbyshire.

[1] Mineral Statistics of the United Kingdom for the year 1865, by Robert Hunt, F.R.S.

The number of persons employed in metal mining is as follows :— Number of persons employed.

—	Under 20, England.	Under 20, Scotland.	20 to 60, England.	20 to 60, Scotland.
Iron	5,000	2,600	16,000	9,000
Copper	6,000	..	12,000	..
Tin	5,400	..	9,000	..
Lead	4,500	100	24,000	400
Not described . .	2,000	400	5,500	1,500
	22,900	3,100	66,500	10,900

In Cornwall miners are divided into tributors and tut workmen. The labourers work in companies of from two to eight men, and for eight hours at a time. The tributors' earnings are regulated not only by the amount and quality of the ore brought to the surface, but by its market value at the time it is sold to the smelters. Instances are quoted of £100 or more being realised in one month, and of tributors becoming owners of land and cottages; but should a lode turn out poorer than expected, the tributor may work for weeks, and perhaps months, without earning anything. The workmen are paid by piecework, and their earnings average from £3 to £3 10/ per month. In Cornwall the work at the dressing floors is partly carried on by a few men disabled from working below, but principally by women and children, their wages being at the rate of 8*d.* and 1/ a day for the former, and 4*d.* to 6*d.* for the latter. A surface man in Cornwall earns 2/ a day. In the north of England the smelters earn, on an average, 20/ a week; the roasters, 17/6; and the separators, 18/; the working miners, 16/ to 17/. In the ironstone mines the wages are from 3/9 to 4/ a day; in Wages.

Wales they average £3 per month. There are, however, deductions for candles, doctors, education, &c. On the average, the wages may be taken at 22/ per man; 6/ for lads and boys.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	under 20,	26,000	at 6/	405,600
„	20 to 60,	77,400	at 22/	4,427,286
		103,400		4,832,880

COAL MINING.

Sub-Order 1.

Quantities produced.

In 1865 the produce of coal in the United Kingdom was as follows:—

—	Number of Collieries.	Tons.
Durham and Northumberland	332	25,032,694
Staffordshire and Worcestershire	125	12,200,989
Lancashire	884	11,962,000
North and South Wales	510	9,894,507
Yorkshire	434	9,355,100
Derbyshire	154	4,595,750
Monmouthshire	83	4,125,000
Other Counties of England	198	8,211,047
Scotland	497	12,650,000
Ireland	39	123,500
	3,256	98,150,587

Value of exports.

The declared value of coal exported was as follows:—

	£
1845	973,635
1855	2,446,341
1865	4,161,338

Number of persons employed.

	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	78,000	173,000
Scotland	11,500	25,000
Ireland	500	2,000
	90,000	200,000

Hours of labour.

The hours of labour in the collieries differ with different occupations. The miner works 7 hours a day; the tunnellers and horse keepers, 8 hours; the onsetters, pony putters, and others, 12 hours a day.

Tools.

The labourer must provide himself with candles, powder, and implements; and some deductions are made from his wages.

Wages.

The wages in Newcastle and neighbourhood are given as follows, per day:—men, miners and hewers, 5/9; tunnellers, 5/; onsetters, 4/9; rolley way men, 3/9; banksmen, 5/; overmen, 35/ per week; deputy overmen, 4/; horse keepers, 16/ per week; lamp keepers, 16/; screensmen and weighmen, 3/; smiths, 3/6; locomotive engine drivers, 4/; steam engine drivers, 3/6; breaksmen at pits, 3/6; boys, pony putters, 2/8; horse drivers, 1/6; trappers, 1/; wood and water leaders, 2/6 to 3/. In South Yorkshire the average wages are given at 24/ to 27/; in Scotland about the same. Allowing for deductions and for periodical stoppages, the average may be taken at 22/; and 7/ for boys under 20.

Annual amount of wages.

			£
Men under 20,	90,000	at 7/	1,638,000
„ 20 to 60,	200,000	at 22/	11,440,000
	290,000		13,078,000

House rent.

Miners live in cottages built by the coal owner in

the immediate vicinities, and they pay £2 or £3 for very small accommodation. In some cases land is let to the miner as accommodation land, and the miner builds his own cottage. Evidence was given before the Commissioners on Mines that in the north of England, when the men live three to five miles distant, a dormitory is provided for them, coals are often given with the house, and a little garden.

Health. The rate of mortality in the coal producing counties is not great; but the rate for counties gives no indication of the mortality from coal mining, the same being modified by a large agricultural population in the same place. In Durham the rate in 1864 was 2,284; Northumberland, 2,273; Staffordshire, 2,518; North Wales, 2,214; South Wales, 2,310. The greater danger of mortality is from accidents. From 1856 to 1865 there were raised in Great Britain 850,000,000 tons of coal, and the number of deaths from accidents was 9,916; showing that there was one death to every 100,000 tons of coal raised, and one life lost to every 321 persons employed. Dr. Farr, in his evidence to the Commissioners on the Condition of Mines, gave a table showing the annual death rate per cent. of different classes of Englishmen for 1849—1853.[1] At the age of 20 and upwards, the annual death rate per cent. in England and Wales was 2·54; among miners in Durham and Northumberland, 2·38; Staffordshire, 3·00; Merthyr Tydvil, 3·27. At 20 to 40, in England and Wales the rate was 1·02; among miners in Durham and Northumberland, 0·79; Staffordshire, 1·51; Merthyr Tydvil, 1·85 per cent.

Education. The proportion of persons who signed their mar-

[1] See Report of Commissioners on Mines and Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Mines, 1866.

riage register with marks in colliery counties was as follows:—Durham, 24·4 per cent., males; 38·3 females: Stafford, 38·4 males; 51·8 females: North Wales, 34·9 males; 48·7 females: Monmouth, 41·9 males; 51·8 females per cent.

COALHEAVERS AND LABOURERS.

SUB-ORDER 2.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	2,100	11,000	1,900	1,900	
Scotland	210	1,500	90	140	
Ireland	70	680	..	..	
	2,380	13,180	1,990	2,040	

Wages.

The wages in London are high, coal porters earning as much as 32/ a week; but in the country they earn less. On an average, they can only be taken at 23/ for men; 7/ for boys; 8/ women, and 5/ girls.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	under 20,	2,380	at 7/	43,300
„	20 to 60,	13,180	at 23/	788,000
Women	under 20,	1,990	at 5/	25,900
„	20 to 60,	2,040	at 8/	42,400
		19,590		899,600

CHIMNEY SWEEPERS.

SUB-ORDER 2.

	Men.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	1,600	4,200	
Scotland	70	250	
Ireland	300	450	
	1,970	4,900	

Wages.

The earnings of chimney sweepers vary considerably, but they may be taken to average 22/ for men, and 6/ for boys, per week.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	1,790	under 20, at	6/	30,700
„	4,900	20 to 60, at	22/	280,300
	6,690			311,000

GAS WORKS.

Sub-Order 2.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	600	8,000
Scotland	60	1,100
Ireland	10	180
	670	9,280

Wages.

The wages in the gas manufacture in London average 25/ a week. In Leicester, gas makers, stokers, and retort men earn 3/9 per day. In Edinburgh, 26/ to 27/ per week. Engineers, 6/ a day in Leicester, 40/ a week in Edinburgh; bricklayers, 5/6 a day in Leicester, 29/ in Edinburgh; gasfitters, 4/6 a day in Leicester, and 21/ to 28/ in Edinburgh.

LIME, SLATE, AND STONE QUARRIERS.

Sub-Order 3.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	6,000	29,000
Scotland	750	7,000
Ireland	700	3,700
	7,450	39,700

The wages of quarrymen are about the same as those of common labourers, and they may be taken at 18/ for men, and 6/ for boys. Wages.

				£	
Men under 20,	7,450	at	6/	116,000	Annual amount of wages.
„ 20 to 60,	39,700	at	18/	1,863,000	
	47,150			1,979,000	

BRICKMAKERS.

Sub-Order 3.

	Men.		Women.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	9,200	28,000	1,200	1,700	
Scotland	500	1,550	..	..	
Ireland	100	300	..	..	
	9,800	29,850	1,200	1,700	

Brickmakers are generally paid by piecework. Moulders earn as much as 50/ in summer and 21/ in winter; those employed in tempering, 50/ in summer and 21/ in winter. And so those working in burning and wheeling. A good proportion of the whole number employed, 36 per cent., consists of labourers who earn 3/ a day in Leicester and 15/ to 17/ a week in Edinburgh. For the whole year, and for the whole number, the wages may be taken at 25/ for men; 8/ boys; 5/ girls, and 8/ women. Wages.

				£	
Men under 20,	9,800	at	8/	204,000	Annual amount of wages.
„ 20 to 60,	29,850	at	25/	1,940,000	
Women under 20,	1,200	at	5/	15,600	
„ 20 to 60,	1,700	at	8/	35,000	
	42,550			2,194,600	

Annual amount of wages.

				£
670	men	under 20,	at 8/	13,936
9,280	„	20 to 60,	at 23/	554,994
9,950				568,930

THE EARTHENWARE MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 4.

Value of exports.

The value of exports of this manufacture is as follows :—

	Declared value of Earthenware exported.
	£
1845	828,182
1855	1,000,738
1865	1,442,934

Locality.

The manufacture of earthenware and porcelain is carried on principally in the pottery districts of North Staffordshire, Worcester, and Newcastle; Stoke-upon-Trent, Burslem, Shelton, Stanley, Longton, &c., being the centres.

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	4,200	20,000	6,300	7,000
Scotland	700	1,300	300	250
Ireland	..	100	..	..
	4,900	21,400	6,600	7,250

Hours of labour.

The potteries are now placed under the Factory Act, and the difficulties thereby introduced in the use of children's labour has led to the introduction of machinery in several processes. The hours of labour are about 50 hours a week.

Tools.

The workers have to provide themselves with tools, but they do not cost more than 10/ a year.

The present wages are given in the Staffordshire potteries for earthenware as follows:—men, claymakers, 4/6 per day; throwers, 6/6; turners, 4/6; handlers, 4/; pressers, 4/6; modellers, 7/; moulders, 4/6; saggar makers, 6/; biscuit firemen, 6/6; biscuit placers, 4/6; printers, 4/6; glost firemen, 4/6; kiln men, 5/; gilders, 4/6; boys, turners, 6/6; throwers, 3/6; handlers, 6*d.*; pressers, 1/; biscuit firemen, 1/6; gilders, 2/; women, 10/ a week; girls, 5/ per week. In the porcelain manufacture the men earn 1/ to 1/6 more a week in almost every branch. In Worcester the wages are given per week at, claymakers, 16/; throwers, 50/; turners, 30/; handlers, 25/; pressers, 30/; figure makers, 36/; modellers, 45/; moulders, 36/; saggar makers, 30/; biscuit firemen, 44/; biscuit placers, 18/; glost firemen, 22/; kiln firemen, 27/. In Newcastle the wages are given at 10/ per week less. In most cases it is all by piece work that the men are paid. On an average, the earnings may be taken at 30/ for men; 10/ lads and boys; 10 women, and 5/ girls. Wages.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	4,900	at	10/	127,400
„	20 to 60,	21,400	at	30/	1,669,200
Women	under 20,	6,600	at	10/	171,600
„	20 to 60,	7,250	at	5/	94,250
		40,150			2,062,450

The rentals in Stoke-upon-Trent were:—under £7, 66 per cent.; £7, and under £10, 16 per cent.; and £10 and upwards, 18 per cent. House rent.

The rate of mortality was:—Stoke-upon-Trent, 2·78; Wolverhampton, 2·78, and Newcastle-on-Tyne, 2·29 per cent. Health.

The number who signed their marriage register by marks was as follows:—Stoke-upon-Trent, 35 per Education.

cent. males, 45 per cent. females; Wolverhampton, 40 per cent. males, 50 per cent. females; Newcastle-under-Lyne, 33 per cent. males, 41 per cent. females.

Savings. The amount of money owing to depositors in savings banks averaged as follows:—

	£	s.
Newcastle-under-Lyne .	1	11
Stoke-upon-Trent . .	0	1

Drunkenness. In Newcastle-under-Lyne the number of persons who were committed for drunkenness averaged 1·02 per cent.

GLASS MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 5.

Value of imports and exports.

	Declared value of Glass exported.	Real value of Glass imported.
	£	£
1855	507,332	83,315
1865	742,739	620,991

Number of persons employed.

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	4,100	9,700	530	750
Scotland	440	750	..	..
Ireland	50	220	..	..
	4,590	10,670	530	750

Wages. The wages in flint glass and domestic articles are given as follows:—1st class, 48/ to 49/; 2nd class, 42/ to 44/; 3rd class, 30/ to 40/6; 4th class, 22/ to 34/; 5th class, 10/ to 31/; 6th class, 21/8: glass cutters, 24/ to 32/; teazers, mixers, packmen, and others, 25/. Mr. White reported to the Children's Improvement Commission that the minimum wages paid to flint glass blowers were 22/ for workmen; 16/6 for servitors. A bottle glass manufacturer

states that a finisher would make from £6 to £8 a week; a blower, £3 10/; a gatherer, £2 5/; a putter up, £1 5/ to £1 7/; a taker in, 15/. On an average, we may take 30/ a week for men; 8/ women, and 6/ boys and girls.

Each chain, or set of hands, consists of a few persons, viz., the workman, who finishes the article; the servitor, who prepares it by blowing; the foot maker, who assists the servitor, and the taker in. Conditions of labour.

In Birmingham glass workers work 45 hours in the week, except glass cutters, who work 55 to 60 hours. Hours of labour.

					£
Men	4,590	under 20,	at	6/	71,600
„	10,670	20 to 60,	at	30/	832,200
Women	530	under 20,	at	6/	8,300
„	750	20 to 60,	at	8/	15,600
	16,540				927,700

Annual amount of wages.

SALT MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 6.

	Men.		Number of persons employed.
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	
England	270	1,650	
Scotland	450	750	
Ireland	..	80	
	720	2,480	

A fair workman earns, on an average, 28/ a week. Wages.

In the Stoke works the shift system is adopted; two men, one for the day and one for the night, are appointed to each pan, and receive 2/ per ton, proportionately divided between them. Each head of a pan is paid 22/ weekly on account, and the balance Condition of labour.

is settled monthly. On an average, we may take the wages at 25/ for men, and 6/ for boys.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men under 20,	720	at	6/	11,200
„ 20 to 60,	2,480	at	25/	161,200
	3,200			172,400

WATER WORKS.

SUB-ORDER 7.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	120	1,800
Scotland	10	160
Ireland	50	130
	180	2,090

Wages.

The wages in this industry are, on an average, not higher than 21/ men, and 6/ for boys, per week.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men 180	under 20,	at	6/	2,800
„ 2,090	20 to 60,	at	21/	114,000
2,270				116,800

GOLD, SILVER, AND PRECIOUS STONES.

SUB-ORDER 8.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England . .	5,000	14,300	1,450	1,600
Scotland	350	700	..	..
Ireland	100	450	..	..
	5,450	15,450	1,450	1,600

Jewellers, it is said, are some of the best paid Birmingham artisans; the rate varies considerably, but he is a poor workman who can earn only 25/ weekly; 30/ to 50/ being considered the average wages; though some obtain much more. Enamellers frequently gain as much as £3 to £4 weekly. Boys are usually apprenticed at 14, when they earn 4/ per week, which is increased annually until they are 21, when they generally receive 10/ or 11/. Youths sometimes make a considerable sum by working overtime. In plated wares, men working by the piece earn as much as 50/ to 55/ per week single handed; day men earn 22/ to 40/, according to merit in work. On an average, the wages may be taken at 35/ per man; 8/ boys; 8/ women, and 6/ girls. Wages.

Annual amount of wages.

				£
Men	5,450	under 20, at	8/	113,200
„	15,450	20 to 60, at	35/	1,406,000
Women	1,450	under 20, at	6/	22,600
„	1,600	20 to 60, at	8/	33,200
	23,950			1,575,000

METAL MANUFACTURES OTHER THAN IRON.

Sub-Order 9, 13.

The declared value of exports in the last twenty years has been as follows:— Value of exports.

	1855	1865
	£	£
Copper	2,004,122	3,132,179
Lead	639,031	775,467
Tin	1,321,291	2,005,221
Brass	107,060	232,316
	4,071,486	6,145,183

Copper and tin are found largely in Cornwall, but they are smelted in Wales, principally at Swansea; lead is produced in Holywell, Hexham, Newcastle-on-Tyne; steel in Sheffield; brass in Birmingham and Aston.

Number of persons employed.

In the manufacture of copper there are employed in England about 11,000 persons; tin, 22,000; lead, 5,000; steel, 3,200; and brass, 20,600. According to ages, they are as follows:—

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England	13,600	34,000	7,400	5,800
Scotland	1,750	4,300	..	..
Ireland	15,400	1,500	..	..
	15,750	39,800	7,400	5,800

Wages.

The wages are paid by the day, but they are calculated by the quantity produced; the rates of wages varying with the description of labour. £5 to £7 a month are usually earned. On an average of the whole number, we may safely take 25/ a week per man, and 10/ for boys and lads under 20; 5/ for girls; and 8/ for women. In the steel manufacture, the converter earns 28/ to 40/, and his labourer, 18/ to 21/; melter, 36/ to 45/; puller out, 27/ to 32/; coker, 20/; forgeman and tilter, 40/ to 50/; rod roller, 36/ to 72/; rod furnacemen, 18/ to 30/; sheet roller, 40/ to 60/; sheet furnacemen, 20/ to 30/. The wages of tin workers in Birmingham average 30/.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	under 20,	17,000	at	10/	442,000
„	20 to 60,	41,000	at	25/	2,665,000
Women	under 20,	7,500	at	5/	97,500
„	20 to 60,	5,500	at	8/	115,400
		71,000			3,319,900

—	Under £7.		£7 and under £10.		£10 and upwards.		House rents.
	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	
Swansea	60	6,361	13	1,467	27	2,873	

The rate of mortality in 1864 in Swansea was 3·02 per cent; in Neath, 2·70 per cent; and in Penzance, 2·35 per cent of the population. Health.

The proportion of persons who signed their marriage register with marks in 1864 was as follows:—Swansea, 33 per cent. males, 43 per cent. females; Neath, 42 males, 61 females; Penzance, 24 per cent. males, and 40 per cent. females. Education.

The amount owing to depositors in savings banks averaged in Swansea £3 12/; in Penzance, £2 2/. Savings.

The number of persons proceeded against for drunkenness averaged in Swansea 0·56 per cent.; in Neath, 2·08 per cent.; and in Penzance, 0·57 per cent. Drunkenness.

THE IRON MANUFACTURE.

Sub-Order 14.

In 1865 there were in the United Kingdom 657 furnaces in blast, the production of which was as follows:—

—	Furnaces.	Tons of Pig Iron.	Export of Iron Manufacture.		Import of Iron Manufacture.
			Years.	Iron and Steel.	
				£	£
England.	376	2,738,867	1845	3,501,895	..
Wales .	140	916,909	1855	9,465,642	542,401
Scotland	141	1,163,478	1865	13,451,445	584,082

Staffordshire, Yorkshire, Durham, and Lancashire are the chief iron districts in England; Glamorgan-

shire and Monmouthshire, of Wales; and Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, of Scotland.

Number of persons employed.

—	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	33,000	94,000	1,300	1,100
Scotland	5,200	13,700	..	..
Ireland	300	800	..	..
	38,500	108,500	1,300	1,100

Nature of the work.

In the manufacture of 1,100 tons of puddled iron from 1,100 tons of pig iron per week there are employed 200 puddlers and 200 underhands, 40 slingers with their helpers, 20 staff carriers, 20 forge rollers, and 30 lads, 20 ash wheelers, 40 bulldog or cinder men, 20 blacksmiths and strikers, 10 bricklayers, 10 labourers, 20 forge stocktakers, 10 common labourers, 10 watchmen, and 10 coal unloaders. Out of 20/ per ton expended on labour, 9/6 go to the puddlers and underhands, 1/6 to the shinglers, 1/6 to the forge rollers, 1/ to bricklayers, 1/6 to managing, and 5/ between the remaining labourers.

Yield of furnaces.

The average yield of puddling furnaces throughout the United Kingdom is not more than 9 tons per week. An average mill, produces 10 tons of bar iron per day; an ordinary hoop mill 4, 5, to 9 tons per day.

Hours of labour.

Nominally, the labourers work 12 hours; but the actual working hours are from 8 to 9 in the forges, and 10 to 10½ hours in the mills. The general character of labour in forges and mills is intermittent, and rarely an operation requires more than 20 minutes' close and consecutive attendance. A puddler is but rarely occupied 5 hours per day; an assistant firemen 5 hours; the majority work only 4 hours, although they are present in the works; shinglers

work the same hours; rollers, both forge and millwork, 7 to 9 hours; furnace men, 4 to 5 hours; lads, helpers, &c., 7 to 9 hours.

The labourers provide themselves with tools. Tools.

The wages are given as follows:—puddlers, 7/6 to 7/10 a day, but they pay the underhands 2/6 to 2/11; slingers, 9/ to 15/, they paying their helpers 4/6 to 6/ a day; forge rollers, 9/ to 15/, they paying their lads 2/6 to 4/, or others, 1/2 to 2/; ash wheelers, 4/ to 6/6; engineers, 4/ to 6/; cinder men 4/ to 5/; blacksmiths and strikers, between them, 6/6 to 8/. While a good workman may receive 37/6 to 40/ per week, the majority do not receive 35/. Puddlers, as a rule, make only from 30/ to 32/6 per week; the puddlers of best iron, 35/ to 40/. Taking the whole number employed in this manufacture, we may assume 30/ for men; 12/ for boys and lads; 10/ for women, and 6/ for girls. Wages.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	38,500	under 20,	at	12/	1,201,200
„	108,500	20 to 60,	at	30/	8,463,000
Women	1,300	under 20,	at	6/	21,200
„	1,100	20 to 60,	at	10/	28,600
	149,400				9,714,000

The rate of mortality in the iron districts was as follows, viz.:—Dudley, 3·20; Wolverhampton, 2·84; Merthyr Tydvil, 2·95. Health.

Rent of houses.

—	Under £7.		£7 to £10.		£10 and upwards.	
		Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.
Dudley . . .	5,295	67	1,252	16	1,389	17
Wolverhampton .	14,775	54	6,727	24	5,645	21

The number of persons who signed their marriage register with marks was in the following proportion:—Dudley, 51 per cent. males, 66 females; Wolver- Education.

hampton, 41 males, 53 females; Merthyr Tydvil, 52 males, 75 females; Staffordshire, 6·83 males, 48·5 females; South Wales, 37·4 males, 55·9 females; Monmouth, 41·9 males, 51·8 females per cent.

Savings banks. The amount owing to depositors in Wolverhampton was in the proportion of 5/ per head of the population.

Drunkenness. In Wolverhampton the number of persons proceeded against for drunkenness averaged 0·67 per cent.

HARDWARE AND OTHER KINDS OF MANUFACTURE IN IRON.

Sub-Order 14.

Value of exports. The aggregate value of hardware and cutlery, including instruments, lamps, &c., was as follows: viz.—

	Declared value. £
1845	2,183,000
1855	2,960,391
1865	4,354,271

Under this appellation enter all the articles of Birmingham manufacture, such as nails, stove bolts, handles, latches, hinges, boilers, besides blacksmiths, whitesmiths, &c.

Number of persons employed. Taking the entire number of labourers in iron and steel, less those employed in the iron manufacture, as well as ironmongers, &c., the number embraced in this category are:—

	Men.		Women.	
	Under 20.	20 to 60.	Under 20.	20 to 60.
England and Wales .	38,400	138,000	5,800	9,600
Scotland	5,700	19,000	..	..
Ireland	4,800	22,000	..	..
	48,900	179,000	5,800	9,600

Wages.

The wages in the manufacture of locks differ much. The best till and cabinet lock workers earn 25/ to 40/; at Willenhall, warded rim, dead mortice drawback, pad and till lock makers, 18/ to 30/; iron pad and cabinet lock makers, iron cabinet and key makers, at Wednesfield, earn 15/ to 25/; and at Brewood, fine plate lock makers, 18/ to 28/.[1] In the hollow wares the wages of skilled labourers average from 25/ to 40/ a week; the manufacturers of tubes, 30/; women employed as solderers, 10/ to 12/; lads, 4/6 to 10/; an iron carter sometimes earns £3 per week; blacksmiths and whitesmiths earn 25/ to 30/ a week.

Annual amount of wages.

					£
Men	48,900	under 20,	at	8/	1,017,000
„	179,000	20 to 60,	at	25/	11,635,000
Women	5,800	under 20,	at	6/	94,500
„	9,600	20 to 60,	at	10/	249,500
	233,300				12,996,000

Health.

The rate of mortality in the principal centres of this manufacture was as follows:—Birmingham, 3·09 per cent.; Walsall, 3·06; Wolverhampton, 2·84; Aston, 2·58; West Bromwich, 2·56 per cent.

Rent of houses.

—	Under £7.	£7 to £10.	£10 and upwards.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Birmingham	41	50	54
Walsall	26	28	24
Wolverhampton	33	22	21

Education.

The proportion who signed their marriage register by marks was as follows:—Birmingham, 25 males per

[1] See 'Birmingham and the Midland Hardware District,' p. 89.

cent., 35 females; Walsall, 42 males, 50 females; Wolverhampton, 41 males, 53 females; West Bromwich, 31 males, 44 females; Aston, 19 males, 24 females per cent.

Drunkenness. The number proceeded against for drunkenness averaged, Birmingham, 0·59; Wolverhampton, 0·68; Walsall, 0·34.

Class VI.—INDEFINITE OCCUPATIONS.

Order XVI.

LABOURERS.

Labourers. The census of 1861 gave the number of general labourers belonging to branches of labour undefined at 808,831; viz., England and Wales, 309,883; Scotland, 68,336; and Ireland, 430,612; and their income at the lowest estimate would be several millions a year; but a large portion of these has already been included under builders; others are doubtless connected with the other occupations, and any excess may be set against any over-estimate in the previous calculation.

Washerwomen. In connection with the workers in dress we should also have placed washerwomen, of whom 170,000 were in the United Kingdom. At an average of 10/ per week, including the food sometimes earned by them, their income would amount to upwards of £4,000,000 per annum.

Order XVII.

PERSONS OF RANK OR PROPERTY.

Under this order are included persons of rank or property not returned under any office or occupation.

Order XVIII.

PAUPERS, PRISONERS AND VAGRANTS.

This order embraces all persons living on income drawn from voluntary sources and rates, prisoners and others of criminal class of no specified occupation, and vagrants and gipsies.

APPENDIX.

PRICES PAID AT GREENWICH HOSPITAL

For food, clothing and household stores, and rates of artificers' wages, in the following years:—

Years.	Flesh. per cwt. £ s. d.	Bread. d. oz.	Flour. per cwt. £ s. d.	Butter. per lb. s. d.	Cheese. per lb. s. d.	Beer. per barrel. £ s. d.
1740	1 8 0	1 per 9	..	0 5	0 3½	0 5 2½
1750	1 6 6	1 per 13	..	0 5⅛	0 3¼	0 5 8¾
1760	1 11 6	..	..	0 5½	0 3½	0 5 7¾
1770	1 8 6	1 per 11	..	0 6½	0 3¾	0 5 10
1780	1 12 6	..	..	0 6⅛	0 3¾	0 7 3½
1790	1 12 10	..	2 3 4	0 6½	0 4	0 8 7
1800	3 4 4	..	4 16 0	0 11⅛	0 6¼	1 0 4½
1810	3 12 0	..	4 8 4	1 1⅜	0 8½	0 17 10
1820	3 10 4½	1¼ per lb.	2 15 1	0 9½	0 7	0 13 10½
1830	2 3 6	..	2 14 11	0 6½	0 4	0 12 6½
1840	2 14 0	..	2 11 9½	0 10	0 4¾	0 14 3
1850	2 18 9	..	2 15 9	0 11¼	0 8	1 4 5
1860	3 12 7	1¼ per lb.	1 18 3¼	1	0 8	1 1 8
1865	2 17 5½	1½ per lb.	1 17 10	0 11¾	0 7½	1 4 8½

Years.	Candles.	Coal. per chaldr. £ s. d.	Carpenters and Joiners.	Bricklayers.	Masons.	Plumbers.
1740	5/6	1 9 0	2/6 to 2/8	2/6	2/8	3/
1750	6/2	1 7 7½	2/6 „ 2/8	2/6	2/8	2/6
1760	6/10	1 12 8	2/6 „ 2/8	2/6	2/8	2/6
1770	6/10¾	1 9 1½	2/6 „ 2/8	2/4	2/8	3/
1780	6/9½	1 17 3¾	2/6 „ 2/8	2/4	2/10	3/
1790	7/9	1 14 4½	2/6 „ 2/10	2/4	2/10	3/3
1800	10/4	2 11 7	2/10 „ 3/2	3/	2/10	3/3
1810	10/9¾	3 0 8	5/8 „ 5/8	5/2	5/3	5/9
1820	8/2¾	2 5 9	5/3	5/1	5/3	5/9
1830	5/3½	1 7 0	5/6	4/9	5/5	5/6
1840	6/5½	0 19 8	5/5	4/10 to 4/8	5/3	5/5
1850	6/9	1 7 11	4/8	5/	5/	5/
1860	6/3	0 17 9	4/8 „ 5/	4/8 to 5/	4/8 to 5/	5/ to 5/6
1865	5/8	0 18 10	4/8 „ 5/	5/	5/	5/6

PRICES OF SUGAR AND TEA.

—	Average price of Sugar per cwt., inclusive of duty.			Average price of Tea per lb., inclusive of duty.	
	£	s.	d.	s.	d.
1801 to 1814	3	14	3	4	7
1815	4	12	5	6	3½
1820	3	3	5	5	6¼
1825	3	5	10	5	6½
1830	2	10	9	4	6¼
1835	2	17	7	4	0¼
1840	3	14	3	4	9
1845	2	7	5	3	4
1850	1	17	8	3	5½
1855	2	0	2	2	11
1860	2	1	0	2	11
1865	2	1	7	2	6

Rate of increase or decrease in prices from 1840 to 1865 :—

	Increase per cent.	Decrease per cent.
Flesh . . .	6	..
Bread . . .	..	14
Flour . . .	..	27
Butter . . .	17½	..
Cheese . . .	52	..
Beer	73	..
Candles . . .	..	11
Coal	..	4
Sugar	..	43
Tea	..	47

ANNUAL MORTALITY per cent. of MALES, aged 15 years and upwards, in the under-mentioned Occupations, in the year 1860-61, at different periods of age.

OCCUPATIONS.	MALES—AGES.								
	15 years and upwards.	15.	25.	35.	45.	55.	65.	75.	85 years and upwards.
All males aged 15 years and upwards in England .	1·816	·721	·915	1·228	1 767	3·110	6·625	14·882	31·702
Tailors	1·997	·905	1·162	1·289	1·863	3·290	6·930	16·460	39·571
Shoemakers	1·855	·723	·933	1·113	1·577	3·024	6.911	16·279	37·815
Carpenters and Joiners	1·646	·557	·777	·980	1·542	2·803	6·951	15·187	34·527
Persons engaged in the wool, cotton, flax, and silk manufactures	1·860	·747	·910	1·203	1·855	3·690	8·706	20·447	42·857
Bakers and Confectioners	1·617	·422	·794	1·273	1·918	3·461	7·282	19·943	33·000
Miners, viz., coal, iron, copper, tin, and lead, and others connected with mines	1·578	·824	·996	1·280	2·027	4·306	10·069	21·613	62·500
Persons engaged in the iron, copper, tin, and lead manufactures	1·220	·542	·740	1·125	2·059	4·009	9·151	22·236	38·095
Labourers, viz., agricultural labourers, farm servants, general labourers, railway labourers, navvies, stone, slate, and limestone quarriers, brickmakers, and other workers in stone and clay	1·736	·474	·792	·997	1·398	2·617	5·949	15·961	4 0·975
Labourers as above, including bricklayers and masons	1·744	·477	·803	7·038	1·474	2·714	6·052	16·041	40·565
Blacksmiths	1·562	·527	·836	1·088	1·742	3·139	6·958	17·717	36·194
Domestic Servants (Males), Coachmen, Grooms, Gardeners, and Inn Servants	2·499	·745	1·714	2·534	3·713	6·411	16·298	40·173	93·150

The mortality of domestic male servants appears very large, but it has been suggested that difficulty is experienced in the calculation, from the uncertainty in the designation of the occupation.

According to the table of mortality thus supplied the mortality per cent. of males aged 15 years and upwards stood in 1860-61 in the following order :—

England	1·816
Domestic, and other male servants	2·499
Tailors	1·997
Persons engaged in the wool, cotton, flax and silk manufactures	1·860
Shoemakers	1·855
Labourers, including bricklayers and masons .	1·744
Labourers, agricultural, railway navvies, &c. .	1·736
Carpenters and joiners	1·646
Bakers and confectioners	1·617
Miners	1·578
Blacksmiths	1·562
Persons engaged in the iron, copper, tin and lead manufactures	1·222

At special ages, however, the order is somewhat altered. Tailors and miners have the highest mortality at between 15 and 25 ; servants and tailors at between 25 and 35, and at between 35 and 45, and 45 and 55. After 55 the highest mortality is experienced by servants, miners, and persons working in tin and lead. At 15 to 25 years of age, the lowest mortality is among bakers and labourers ; at 25 to 35, among persons working in tin and lead, and carpenters ; at 45 and the higher ages the least mortality is among labourers, carpenters and joiners.[1]

[1] See 'Letter to the Registrar-General on the Mortality in the Registration Districts of England during the ten years 1851-1860,' by William Farr, Esq., M.D., F.R.S. (1864).

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